

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 9, 1882.

The Week.

THE financial situation was one of anxiety and apprehension until Saturday, which was the critical day for the settlements at the Paris Bourse. Up to that time gold continued to flow from London to Paris and from New York to London, although the total specie shipments from here amounted to only \$3,750,840. It is true that the Bank of England made no further advance in its discount rate, but the actual discount rate was before Saturday above 6 per cent., and as high as 7 per cent. was then paid for money on the best securities which could be offered in London as collateral for call loans. On Saturday, as soon as it was known that the Paris settlement had been made satisfactory, the agony ended. Hopefulness took the place of fear; exchange on London at Paris began to advance, the prices of securities in London began to rise, and the tendency in all directions has since been toward improvement. This was shown here by a decline in the rates for bills on London and Paris to figures which do not warrant gold exports; and the week under review closes with the prospect that no more gold will be exported at present. The speculation at the Stock Exchange here varied in tone with the changes in the foreign-exchange markets, which in turn were influenced by the foreign advices. The New York banks last week lost heavily in reserve, but, after the losses were made good, their condition was somewhat stronger than a year ago. The legitimate business of the country shows every sign of soundness and prosperity. The surplus revenues of the Government continue to accumulate so that the Secretary of the Treasury has been forced to call in for redemption another \$20,000,000 of 3½ per cent. bonds. The public debt was reduced during January \$12,978,834, making the total reduction for the first seven months of the fiscal year \$88,085,931.

Tuesday's *Tribune* brought us another explanation from Mr. Blaine of the manner in which he acquainted the President with the instructions to Mr. Trescott. According to this statement the mission of Mr. Trescott to South America was resolved upon between the President and Mr. Blaine; the President then had a long conversation with Mr. Trescott in Mr. Blaine's absence; Mr. Blaine then made a rough draft of instructions for Mr. Trescott, which he "handed to Mr. Trescott for such suggestions and additions as he might deem desirable for authority in the mission upon which he was to enter"; Mr. Trescott returned the paper with his suggestions and additions, and Mr. Blaine then completed the draft, which he submitted to the President, "reading it carefully to him for correction." The President "listened with close attention," and "suggested four corrections, which were accordingly

made." Mr. Blaine then "stated to the President that it might be well to add a paragraph to exclude the idea of any special desire on the part of the United States Government to consider itself an umpire in the Chili-Peru controversy." This paragraph being added to the instructions, Mr. Blaine "again read it carefully to the President," and "the copy for Mr. Trescott was then made." It is further given out that the paragraph concerning the breaking off of diplomatic relations with Chili, which was subsequently taken special exception to and countermanded by Mr. Frelinghuysen, was in fact first written out by Mr. Trescott. This is the latest statement of Mr. Blaine, and we have seen nothing specifically impugning its correctness as far as it goes. It is a usual thing for a minister of foreign affairs to permit an envoy sent out on an important mission, to write out his own instructions after the objects of the mission have been explained to him, so that it may appear whether those objects have been clearly understood and appreciated by him, and also to give him an opportunity to formulate such suggestions as he may wish to make to his chief, who after all has to bear the responsibility for the instructions. This was done in Mr. Trescott's case. Judging from the context of the *Tribune* despatch, Mr. Blaine does not mean to shift any part of his responsibility upon Mr. Trescott, but rather to defend the instructions as they stand. Statements apparently "inspired" by the White House have not denied that President Arthur saw the instructions and authorized them to be issued. But they create a doubt as to whether Mr. Blaine gave the President sufficiently explicit and clear information on the general condition of South American affairs to enable him to decide intelligently. This doubt is not removed by Mr. Blaine's latest explanation, and it is difficult to see how it could be.

The arrest of the manager of the Union Générale for fraud is probably a very unexpected termination to a religious bank, or at least a bank supported mainly by persons acting under a religious impulse. It was essentially a Catholic and Legitimist bank, and was intended to give conservative religious people a fair share in the fruits of the prevailing material prosperity. The Pope is said to have put money into it. The Count de Chambord put money into it, and the Catholic nobility of France and Belgium put money into it. Under this stimulation the shares rose rapidly and greatly, and it went into all sorts of enterprises with its spare cash. It built railroads, and started gas works, even undertook to float a "Compagnie des Forces Électriques," which was to have a capital of \$15,000,000. The manager reported great profits, and the stockholders believed him and so did the outside public, until the inevitable hour came when the insiders wished to "unload." This hour comes in all speculative enterprises sooner or later, and if it happens to be the same hour at which insiders in other spec-

ulative enterprises wish to unload also, there is a panic such as Paris is now passing through. It was at first supposed that the Union Générale must be proof even against a panic, and that, the first flurry over, it would go on again. But investigation revealed the fact that its management had been fraudulent all along, and its managers are now in jail, and the scandal is great, and the best circles of Continental society are sadly out of pocket.

The moral of the affair is a very old one, and yet every time it is reproduced it has the charm of novelty. It is that business cannot be successfully conducted under any guarantees of soundness and safety except business ones. Innumerable attempts have been made to put commercial enterprises of various sorts—newspapers among the number—on a religious or quasi-religious basis, and always with the same result. If the scheme does not fail outright, it does not succeed. The reason is that people never rely equally on two guarantees of a wholly different order. If a president or cashier is mainly trusted because he is a religious man, the ordinary business precautions against his malfeasance are sure to be neglected, and thus new temptations to fraud actually created. Besides which, nobody knows how religious a man is except himself, and if his word is taken as sufficient on this point, it is sure to be taken in other matters where it ought not to be taken at all. The probabilities are that M. Bontoux and his fellow-managers of the Union Générale were largely trusted because they were so good Catholics, and so right-thinking in the eyes of the depositors on a variety of subjects, social, political, and religious. The probabilities are, too, that M. Bontoux himself at last got to believe that a man who was sound on all these subjects might fairly treat himself to a larger liberty in the use of the bank capital than a man less orthodox; and then, when things began to go wrong, he probably worked himself into the belief, also, that it was better to cook the accounts than permit the enormous scandal which would be caused by the failure of an institution blessed with such support. The fact is, however, that "business is business," and nothing else. The time for religious and philanthropic and political considerations to begin to operate in financial undertakings is after the accounts have been examined and honest dividends have been declared, and not sooner.

Mr. John Roach has made a very singular confession to a reporter of the *Tribune*. He declares he is going over to France to establish a ship-building yard and build ships, in order to take advantage of the French bounty, which would amount to \$34,215 on the building of a 3,000-ton ship, and \$54,000 the first year and \$52,000 the second year for running her. The law providing this bounty was passed two years ago, and seems, Mr. Roach says, "an expensive one, yet it furnishes France with a cheap navy, and the best she has ever had"—alluding, we suppose, to the provision which compels the owners to sell

to the Government on demand in time of war. We need hardly say that, according to Mr. Roach, "England has tried in every way to have the law annulled, but finding herself defeated, her capitalists are going over to France to build ships there." Of course they are. It is just like them to do so. English capitalists go wherever they can make money, and especially to places where they get bonuses for carrying on their own business. They are a cold, heartless, greedy class, who, when you talk to them of carrying on business from patriotic motives, laugh in a peculiarly provoking British way. But we had little idea that a really patriotic American shipbuilder like Mr. Roach would follow their very repulsive example. He is now going to devote himself to the task of increasing that disparity between the number of steamships afloat under foreign flags and that of steamships afloat under the American flag which already constitutes such a scandal and disgrace. Nor is this all. He is going to help to increase the competition in the foreign carrying trade, and thus lower freights and diminish the price at which foreign goods can be sold at a profit in our market. What do they say to this in Philadelphia? One thing, however, Mr. Roach seems to have forgotten, and that is, that the British are not at all likely to be content with trying to "annul the French law," or with starting shipyards on French soil. They will circumvent him in some other way.

The Rev. Dr. John Hall, who has personally investigated the condition of the Mormons, has given an opinion on the polygamy problem to a reporter of the *Herald*, and we are glad to see, considering the kind of talk the question has called forth, that he proposes to deal with it rationally and humanely. He points out that if we interfere violently with marriages already contracted, we must make some provision for the cast-out wives and their children, a consideration which those who have hitherto declaimed on this subject seem to have overlooked. In fact, he is opposed to all retrospective legislation of a punitive character. He calls attention, too, to the fact that the polygamic women—a few thousands all told—"are of the lowest—the dregs of certain sections of European society, mean, ignorant, wretched-looking creatures." This fact alone gives a very ludicrous air to the boastings we have lately heard of the power of 50,000,000 of people to put these creatures down, and to the plan of despatching armies against them led by great captains. It would be about as sensible to despatch an army against the sinners of Greene Street and Water Street. What is needed is well-considered legislation capable of execution and firmly executed, backed up by missionaries and philanthropists. Sexual morality cannot be, and never has been, enforced or maintained by artillery and cavalry, and the ministers who discourse on this subject know it well. They know that it was not by hanging and hunting down that Christianity purified the relations of the sexes in the ancient world.

The Canadian publishers are raising a loud

complaint with regard to the operation of the present Anglo-Canadian copyright system in their case. They say that when worked as it now is, in combination with our own cheap-reprint system, it puts the trade in Canada at a great disadvantage. A book copyrighted in England can be first reprinted (pirated) in the United States, where it is sold for twenty or thirty cents, and then imported into Canada, and, after paying a royalty of twelve and one-half per cent., and a duty of fifteen per cent., can still be sold there at a price that "defies competition" so far as legitimate trade is concerned. But then who was it that insisted on the right to import American reprints? Why, the Canadians themselves, because of their longing for "cheap books," that same ardent thirst for knowledge which used always to be advanced by the supporters of international piracy here as the true ground on which to rest the system. The fact is that the laws on the subject of copyright, framed at various times for different and often conflicting purposes, by England, Canada, and the United States, have together produced a practical working system which, if applied to any but literary property, would cause widespread distress and even ruin. A recent writer of authority on the subject has described the system as being a mixture of "meaningless, inconsistent, and inadequate statutory provisions," with "ambiguous, erroneous, and conflicting decisions" of the courts. Canada will evidently have to be taken into the account in the pending negotiations for a treaty.

The annual attempt of the Columbia College Law School graduating class to get its members admitted to the bar, without going through the period of apprenticeship prescribed by the Court rules, has attracted a good deal of notice. It was in great measure to abolish the right to admission through the mere possession of a law-school diploma that the new rules were passed. This right gave the law schools which possessed it a direct pecuniary interest in making as large a number of lawyers every year as possible, so that these institutions had a constant temptation to lower instead of elevating the professional standard. When the new rules, requiring a three years' period of preparation for attorneys and five years for counsellors, were adopted, Professor Dwight took the ground that as to students who had entered his school under the old system, the rule would have a retroactive effect and that such students ought still to be admitted on diploma. There are no longer any such students, the graduating class of this year having entered since the rules were adopted. This class recently appointed a committee to consider the question, and the committee has divided, some of the members strongly insisting that to apply to the Legislature for a special act to get themselves admitted would be an unwarrantable step, while others are in favor of keeping up the old system notwithstanding that the reason for it is gone. The judges and the bar will, we presume, look after these young men, and let the Legislature know what they think of the matter.

The appearance of sixty Harvard students at Mr. Oscar Wilde's lecture in Boston, in the peculiar costume in which he has exhibited himself on various occasions, helped to turn the lecture into something very like a farce, and cause it to be received with more laughter than applause. The performance of the students has been criticised on the score of good manners, but we suspect Mr. Wilde was prepared for it, and did not object to it. It is, indeed, hard to see why he should. He has himself given an air of the ridiculous to everything he says and does, by putting himself for commercial purposes into the hands of the same manager who "runs" the plays in which Mr. Wilde and his teachings are ridiculed for purposes of amusement. After this almost anything which draws becomes legitimate. Since Mr. Wilde accepted *Bunthorne* as an ally in procuring himself an audience, anything which brings people to his lectures must be welcome. Neither he nor any other man can go about the country as a prophet in the hands of a showman. The essential condition of successful prophecy is that the prophet should take him self seriously. If he is once detected laughing over his own gospel, or allows it to be supposed that he thinks his robes funny, it is all over with him.

The *Tribune* makes the very pertinent suggestion that the names which were left in blank in the Peruvian correspondence, particularly the Shepherd part of it, should be supplied. The public ought to know who they are who have been mixed up in this business, whether innocently or discreditably, and we do not see that the Administration is under any obligation to conceal them. If the transaction was harmless, no injury can be done by telling who the actors in it were. If it was mischievous, justice requires that they should be produced. At the same time there ought to come from some quarter an answer to the question whether anything was done in consequence of the following curious piece of information contained in a letter from M. Suarez, the agent of the Crédit Industriel in Washington, to the president of the company in Paris:

"I must apprise you that in order to render the grounds for American intervention more evident, and fully to justify the dominant attitude of the United States in the Pacific question, I have thought fit right and proper verbally to promise Mr. Evarts that the agency for guano and nitrate in the United States should be placed under the patronage of a first-class American house."

The letter is dated February 18, 1881. M. Suarez had been long but vainly teasing the Government to interfere between Chili and Peru so as to prevent Chili from taking the nitrate and guano deposits, which the French company proposed to work itself. It would be interesting now to know whether this "promise" to give the agency of the concern to a "first-class American house" was ever carried out. Of course Mr. Evarts had nothing to do with it.

It is questionable whether a bill which a committee of the House of Representatives is said to favor ought to be called a measure to settle disputes concerning the election of President, or one to promote litigation in rela-

tion thereto. It provides for the reference of controversies about the choice of electors in any State to a tribunal in that State—a proceeding which has been generally approved on the ground that it leaves the appointment of electors where the Constitution puts it, in the hands of the several States. The bill goes on to provide that if, within ten days after the declaration of the result of the election by the President of the Senate, under the direction of the two Houses of Congress, either House shall express dissatisfaction therewith, the question of title to the office of President shall be tried by proceedings in the nature of *quo warranto*, to be begun in a Circuit Court from which an appeal may be taken to the Supreme Court of the United States. The suit may be brought by "any claimant" against the person officially declared to be elected. The objections which will be made to the bill are obvious. One is the same which was urged at the time of the passage of the Electoral Commission law—that it is inexpedient to involve the Supreme Court in political disputes. Another is that the bill takes the final decision out of the hands of Congress, where it is agreed that the Constitution seems to leave it, whatever difference there may be as to methods. A third objection is that, as the title to the office may turn on the vote of a single State, the Supreme Court may overrule the decision of the State tribunal on the question, and so the State may be in effect deprived of its right to choose electors. The bill reported to the Senate from the Committee on Privileges and Elections avoids these objections by limiting litigation to getting the judgment of the State Court on a question arising in the State.

The Senate Judiciary Committee has made a report upon the questions relating to extradition procedure raised by the Esposito case. It finds that complaints exist that the Commissioners in extradition cases receive payment from agents of foreign Governments. This, we presume, refers to fees; but, as we pointed out at the time, it gives the Commissioner a direct interest against the prisoner in the decision of every case. As a consequence of this it is said that Commissioners are usually disposed to expedite extradition proceedings, and for this purpose to hold court on board ship—the ship afterward being used to transport the fugitive from justice to the country which "wants" him. The Committee think that this practice is bad, and that United States Commissioners ought always to sit and hold court on land: they have really no maritime or admiralty jurisdiction. The Committee report a bill to prevent abuses, which is good as far as it goes, but they wind up with a handsome eulogy of the extradition practice as it now is, which recalls a little Blackstone's praise of the common law as it existed in his time. In this city, where most extradition cases arise, improvements are still believed to be possible.

Senator Bayard having come to the rescue of sound principles of finance, as he usually does, in opposition to the majority of his own party, the Plumb amendment to the Funding Bill was finally rejected by the narrow vote of twenty-seven to twenty-five. Senator Sherman thereupon announced that the Finance Com-

mittee would shortly report a bill to establish by law a greenback-redemption fund. Senator Allison has already introduced such a bill, which fixes the amount at \$120,000,000, and provides that three-fourths shall be gold coin and one-fourth standard silver dollars. This bill is objectionable only in the proviso regarding silver. One hundred and twenty millions of coin is sufficient, according to all experience, to protect three hundred and fifty millions of paper, enjoying the confidence of the public in a high degree. If the greenbacks are to remain as a constituent part of the circulation, some definite provision of means for their redemption should be made which no Secretary of the Treasury can depart from. Perhaps Mr. Allison's bill is the best that the politicians in Congress will give us. But the votes taken on the Plumb amendment show that it is not altogether certain that so large a sum as \$120,000,000 will be set apart for this purpose. Differences of opinion will arise also as to the kind of coin, gold or silver, which the redemption fund shall be composed of. The silver advocates believe, or affect to believe, that the adjourned international monetary conference which is to assemble in Paris in April next will really do something to "rehabilitate" silver. It is certain that foreign governments will do the very least which their own necessities will permit. Prudence would dictate our doing nothing in the interval which would indicate a purpose on our part to sustain silver single-handed and alone. Therefore it would seem to be unwise, from the standpoint of a silver advocate at this time, to make one-fourth of the greenback-redemption fund silver, unless in the permissive way in which the Bank of England is authorized, but not required, to keep one-fourth of its resources in silver.

A change has occurred in the ownership of the Washington *Republican*, and it is said that the paper under the new management is to become the organ of the Administration. Such a relation between a journal and a Government will, in a country like this, inevitably be embarrassing and hurtful to both sides unless the journal confines itself strictly to the publication of official matter, and thus ceases to be a newspaper in the ordinary sense. It is the business of a journal to speak out on everything that is of prominent public interest. It is the business of those in power to keep silence on a great many things about which a journal ought to speak. If a journal does its duty in discussing public interests and men, it will embarrass those in power who are held responsible for its utterances. If the restraints which the members of an administration have to impose upon themselves are also imposed upon a journal representing them, the latter will become dull and uninteresting. A recognized organ in the press will always be rather a trouble than an aid to an administration. Moreover, the latter does not need any organ. Whenever the President or the Secretaries have anything to say to the public they will find plenty of newspapers willing and even eager to print it.

The complete and now officially announced failure of the Rugby Colony in Tennessee

adds one more to the list of miscarriages of cooperative schemes intended to make money and create "good society" by the same machinery. The result is not unattainable, but it requires more sagacity and forethought than such enterprises usually have at command. In the present case everything, or nearly everything, seems to have been wrongly done. The land was badly chosen, and the colony badly managed and composed of unsuitable materials. It has ruined the projector, Mr. Thomas Hughes, who is likely to be compelled to take refuge in his declining years in a London police magistracy. The Will Wimbles, whom he expected to turn into industrious and useful cultivators of the soil, apparently do not do well when there are too many of them together. They need to be diffused thinly among people who have been brought up with different standards and ideals. There was, in fact, at the founding of the colony too much talk, and apparently too much thought about lawn-tennis and five o'clock tea.

The doings of the Egyptian Chamber of Notables confirm the general anticipation as to the result of its deliberations. It was bullied by Arabi Bey into the formation of a new Ministry for the Khedive's acceptance under Mahmoudi Bey. The Chamber is composed of the leading men of the various districts from which they come, elected by a sort of rough-and-ready process somewhat like that of the English election in the olden time, by a show of hands in front of the hustings. But there is no real popular participation in it. The Notables themselves decide who of their number shall go to the Chamber, and everybody else declares that it is good and God is great. But the Chamber is probably as nearly an expression of popular opinion as could be, considering how little popular opinion there is in Egypt to express. The Fellahs' politics thus far have a very restricted range. They desire to be taxed as little as possible and bastinadoed but rarely. The Notables, or great landowners, high army officers, learned Mussulman doctors of divinity, and leading Government officials, are the only persons who have "views" on the condition of the country. The notion that a change in the Government can make any difference to themselves has not yet reached the masses. The Notables are hostile to the European—*i. e.*, Anglo-French—Control, and to the Khedive as the instrument of that Control, and are said to exhibit some signs of genuine national feeling. They talk of Egypt for the Egyptians, while yielding to no one in their desire for reform. But, then, their aspirations and deliberations are of very little practical importance, because there is no likelihood that France and England will be influenced by them. In fact, it is all but certain that if the Notables should seek to embody their conclusions in any sort of action, or if there were any signs of their affecting the people or the army, joint intervention would promptly follow. This has been already announced, indeed, by the two powers, as a certain consequence of any serious attempt to disturb the existing régime, or interfere with the European Control.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.
DOMESTIC.

ON Thursday Mr. Blaine published, through the Associated Press, a copy of his despatch inviting a conference of North and South American republics to meet in Washington. In a statement accompanying the despatch Mr. Blaine said that he wished to correct the misrepresentations which had been made in regard to his invitation to a "peace congress" at Washington. The despatch as published contains nothing that necessitates any material change in the statements which have been published in regard to it. On Friday Mr. Blaine sent a letter to President Arthur in which he impliedly accuses him of having pursued a vacillating course in regard to the peace congress. He says the President gave the "most appreciative consideration" to the draft of the invitation to the congress, and directed that it should be sent, and that he, Mr. Blaine, was greatly surprised at finding in the communication afterward addressed by Mr. Frelinghuysen to Mr. Trescott "a proposition looking to the annulment of these invitations" to the peace congress. Mr. Blaine goes on to say that he "cannot conceive how the United States could be placed in a less enviable position than would be secured by sending in November a cordial invitation to all the American governments to meet in Washington for the sole purpose of concerting measures of peace, and in January recalling the invitation for fear that it might create 'jealousy and ill-will' on the part of monarchical governments in Europe." This matter has excited much interest in Washington, and it is understood that a resolution will shortly be introduced in Congress calling for an explanation from the President.

Mr. Sherman's Refunding Bill passed the Senate on Friday by a vote of 38 to 18. Mr. Sherman is said to have expressed satisfaction with the shape in which the bill was finally passed, and to have said that the amendments which it bears do not materially harm it. It has been referred to the Ways and Means Committee in the House, where it is expected that it will meet with much opposition and many amendments. As sent down by the Senate, it retains the provisions of the Davis amendment making the bonds redeemable at any time, at the option of the Government, after all bonds bearing a higher rate of interest have been called in. It provides for the issue of three per cent. bonds to the amount of \$200,000,000, the proceeds of the sale of which are to be devoted to paying off the fives and sixes now bearing three and a half per cent. interest.

Beyond the passage of the Refunding Bill, little business of importance has been transacted by the Senate during the week.

A bill was reported from the Senate Committee on Pensions on Friday granting to Mrs. Garfield, Mrs. Polk, and Mrs. Tyler, widows of ex Presidents, life pensions of \$5,000 per year from September 19, 1881, that of Mrs. Tyler to be in lieu of the pension heretofore granted her.

The joint resolution granting the franking privilege to Senators and Representatives has been reported adversely by the Senate Committee on Post-offices, and indefinitely postponed.

The Senate Committee on Civil Service and Retrenchment heard testimony and arguments on Saturday from Mr. Dorman B. Eaton and Postmaster Pearson of New York. The hearings of the committee are secret.

On Wednesday the House took up the Post-office Appropriations Bill, but no action was taken on any of the amendments offered. The amount appropriated by the bill is \$43,529,300, or \$132,500 less than the estimates made by the Department.

On Monday a bill introduced by Mr. Burrows, of Michigan, providing that no person guilty of bigamy or polygamy shall be eligible to the office of Delegate in the House of Repre-

sents from a Territory, was passed under a suspension of the rules.

On Tuesday the House began the consideration of the bill for a reapportionment of representation under the Tenth Census. The bill as reported by the Census Committee met with much opposition, mainly on the ground that it "robs the weak States for the benefit of the strong." One of the grounds on which the increased number of Representatives which it proposes was defended, was that unless private legislation in the House should be forbidden by a Constitutional amendment the only safety of the Treasury would be in a larger House.

The House has passed a bill for the payment of \$7,500 to the Society of the Army of the Cumberland, for the erection of a statue of President Garfield in Washington. The money is to be appropriated from the proceeds of the sale of condemned ordnance.

On Monday a resolution was adopted by the House calling upon the President to furnish a transcript of the letters of Jacob R. Shepherd, of New York, and the replies thereto, now on the files of the State Department, and also copies of any other letters already communicated, from which the names of persons and firms have been omitted. It is expected that this resolution will bring out more interesting facts in connection with the Peruvian claims and Mr. Blaine's diplomacy.

The sub-committee of the House Committee on Territories has decided to report to the full committee in favor of admitting Washington Territory into the Union as a State.

The charters of nearly 400 national banks will expire within a year, and the Committee on Banking and Currency has reported a bill to provide for their extension.

Both houses of Congress have agreed to set apart Monday, February 27, for the ceremonies in memory of the late President Garfield.

The President has approved the bill granting an additional pension to Mrs. Lincoln.

It is reported that the Washington *Republican* newspaper, of which Mr. Gorham is editor-in-chief, has been sold to friends of President Arthur, and that it will hereafter be the "organ" of the Administration.

The Secretary of the Navy has issued a general order to the effect that the frequency with which punishment by solitary confinement on bread and water, or diminished rations, is imposed by the sentences of summary court-martials, meets with the disapprobation of the Department.

The Secretary of the Treasury has issued the one hundred and eighth call for the redemption of continued five per cent. bonds to an amount not to exceed \$20,000,000, the principal and accrued interest on which will be made payable about the 1st of April.

It is reported that as a result of the secret investigation concerning the expenditures of the Treasury Department Contingent Fund, four Treasury employees have been dismissed.

Mr. Spofford, Librarian of Congress, has submitted his annual report on the progress of the Congressional Library. The entire library now numbers 420,092 volumes, as against 396,788 volumes one year ago. The books acquired by purchase numbered 7,429, and by copyright deposits, 11,872.

On Saturday Judge Cox rendered his decision on the motion for a new trial in the Guiteau case. He overruled all the points made by the defence and denied the motion. After certain formal motions had been made Judge Cox sentenced the prisoner to be hanged on the 30th of June. When asked if he had anything to say why sentence should not be passed on him, Guiteau made a short speech, in which he said he was not guilty, and denounced every one, from the President down, who had anything to do with his death. In conclusion he said he would have a "flight to glory," and that the "American nation will

roll in blood if my body goes into the ground, and I am hanged." He abused Mr. Scoville, whose "jackass theories and consummate nonsense" had convicted him. Mr. Scoville now has till the 1st of March to file his bill of exceptions, after which the case will be reviewed by the court sitting in banc, before which, among other points, the question of jurisdiction will be argued.

On Monday the Grand Jury at Washington began instituting inquiries into the straw-bond cases in the Post-office Department, which have been occupying the attention of the Police Court for the past three weeks. A number of witnesses were examined.

The State Department has received a despatch from Mr. James Gordon Bennett advising that Lieutenant Danenhower be not allowed to go back and continue his search for the missing members of the *Jeannette*'s crew, for the reason that if he returned to the north there would be a strong probability of his losing his eyesight entirely, partial blindness having befallen him already. Mr. Bennett also says that he considers it unnecessary to send line officers from America to assist in the search, as it would only put the Government to unnecessary expense, and he has himself taken all the necessary steps to ensure a thorough and efficient search for the lost members of the crew. The Secretary of the Navy has complied with the humane suggestion in regard to Lieutenant Danenhower, but has cabled Mr. Bennett that he considers it his duty to send officers to Europe to take part in the search. Nearly 100 navy officers have applied to be permitted to go.

Justice Hunt has sent his resignation to the President.

The deadlock in the New York Legislature was ended on Thursday by the election of Mr. Charles E. Patterson, the Democratic caucus nominee, as Speaker of the Assembly. This result was brought about by the Tammany members finally consenting to vote for Mr. Patterson, on condition that another caucus should be held to make nominations for Clerk and other officers of the Assembly.

The Grand Jury on the recent disaster on the New York Central Railroad has indicted the conductor and brakeman of the wrecked train as the persons most to blame, and has censured the management of the road for not sufficiently guarding the cut in which the accident occurred.

Mayor Grace, of New York, has received a letter from Colonel von Steuben thanking the city of New York for the "kind and hospitable reception tendered to the members of the Von Steuben family during their stay in America."

Sir Henry Parker, Premier and Colonial Secretary of New South Wales, has come to this country to endeavor to induce the United States to contribute a subsidy to the Sydney and San Francisco Company, to reduce the duty on wool, and to admit Australian products free of duty.

On Monday the Catholic Bishop of the Diocese of Cleveland delivered a public lecture on the Irish Land League doctrines, which was called forth by a controversy with the local Land League as to how far the League doctrines should be taught within his jurisdiction. The lecture was an able denunciation of the "no-rent" doctrine, which the lecturer declared was "clear, unqualified theft." The lecture was very unpalatable to a large portion of the audience, and it is stated that had the speaker been a layman he would have been "vehemently hissed and rebuked" by the audience.

The Vincennes University of Indiana has started a lottery, of the profits of which the University is to receive \$20,000. The scheme is said to be in the hands of "old lottery men from Louisville," and is a disgrace to the State and to the University. The charter permitting the University to establish a lottery was granted before the adoption of the present State

Constitution, and the Supreme Court has decided that the right could not be taken away by subsequent legislation.

There was a disgraceful scene in the South Carolina Legislature on Friday. Lieutenant Governor Kennedy and State Senator Fisher engaged in a hand-to-hand fight in the Senate Chamber, which was continued in the street. Both parties, of course, belong to the "oldest and most respected families in the State."

A prize fight, which has excited considerable interest, took place at Mississippi City, near New Orleans, on Tuesday, notwithstanding the fact that the Governor had issued a proclamation forbidding the fight. The contest was between John L. Sullivan, of Boston, and Patrick Ryan, of Troy. Sullivan won in nine rounds.

The recent floods on the Cumberland and Tennessee Rivers, attended as they were with great loss of property, are reported to have seriously affected certain branches of business in Cincinnati and the Southwest.

FOREIGN.

Parliament assembled on Tuesday. The opening of the House of Commons was well attended, but there was a sparse attendance in the House of Lords. The Queen's speech reviewed Great Britain's foreign relations very briefly and declared them satisfactory. The programme of legislation outlined in the speech is elaborate. A County Government Bill and the extension of municipal government to the metropolitan parishes of London are proposed; measures for the repression of corrupt practices at elections and the subject of a bankruptcy bill are revived; educational reforms in Scotland and Wales are also mentioned. The subject of the proposed change in Parliamentary procedure in the House of Commons is not mentioned. In the debate on the address in reply to the Queen's speech in the House of Lords, the Marquis of Salisbury made a violent attack on the Government. He said that the conduct of the Government in regard to Turkish affairs tended to separate England from Germany. In regard to Ireland, he declared that the state of affairs there would not have been allowed to exist six months in France or America. He looked upon the Government's course on the Irish question as "offering a sop to those we hope to conciliate because we are unable to conquer them." In conclusion he said that the country expected the Government to meet the calamity of which the doctrines they have preached have been the cause. Earl Granville replied to the Marquis, and in the course of his reply said that the present condition of Ireland compared favorably with that of last year. After Lord Granville's speech the address was agreed to.

When the House of Commons met, Mr. Bradlaugh attempted to take the oath. Sir Stafford Northcote moved that he be not allowed to swear. Sir William Harcourt moved that he be permitted to affirm, and after some debate, in the course of which Mr. Gladstone maintained that the House could only see that the formalities of administering the oath were observed, and could not inquire into Mr. Bradlaugh's opinions, Sir Stafford Northcote's motion was adopted by a vote of 286 to 227, the majority including the Home Rulers.

At a meeting of the Irish Parliamentary party on Monday, Mr. Parnell was re-elected chairman, and a resolution was adopted that the entire question of administration in Ireland, particularly the suppression of tenants' organizations, should be raised in the debate on the address in reply to the speech from the throne.

Great uneasiness is felt in Limerick, Ireland, owing to the ill-feeling which exists between certain classes of citizens and the military. The officer in command of the troops has addressed a communication to the magistrates, pointing out that the soldiers are unable to walk on the streets at night without being stoned, and giving warning that the military

will be compelled to fire on the people in self-defence if this condition of things continues. The magistrates have resolved to take extraordinary precautions to preserve the peace.

The Right Hon. Henry Brand, Speaker of the House of Commons, addressing his constituents near Cambridge, recently, distinctly expressed himself in favor of the *coture*.

A despatch from London on Tuesday announced the death of Major Sir William Palliser, C.B. He is well known as the inventor of the projectiles and guns which bear his name.

An influential meeting was held in London on Thursday to consider the feasibility of establishing a general hospital ambulance service in London similar to that existing in New York. The Duke of Cambridge presided, and resolutions in favor of the New York system were passed.

The meeting called by the Lord Mayor of London, at the instance of distinguished citizens, to protest against the outrages committed on the Jews in Russia, was held on Wednesday, the 1st, at the Mansion House. Speeches were made by a number of very eminent persons, and resolutions were adopted declaring that "the laws of Russia concerning the Jews tend to degrade her in the eyes of Christians." A relief fund was opened, and subscriptions received from many of those present. The Rothschilds, of London and Paris, contributed £5,000 each, Samuel Montagu, Louis Cohen, and the Seligmans, £1,000 each, and the Corporation of London, £300.

The Russian Government is about to publish a statement in regard to foreign agitation regarding the Jews, in which it says that it has not heretofore deemed it worth while to take any notice of the rumor that England was about to take a course so much at variance with existing good relations as to intercede on an internal question, which every government regulates in accordance with its own views. The Government goes on to show that hundreds of persons implicated in the Jewish riots have been tried and otherwise dealt with by the authorities of the various towns. In Warsaw alone 2,302 persons have been committed for trial.

General Ignatieff, Russian Minister of the Interior, in receiving a Jewish delegate recently, said he hoped that, before many months were over, the western frontier would be open to the Jews.

A despatch from Warsaw says that the authorities are apprehensive of a renewal of the outrages against the Jews. A thorough patrol of Cossacks has been ordered.

The Russian Minister of Finance has been authorized to issue Treasury bonds whenever necessary, without obtaining special sanction on each occasion, but the total amount in circulation must not exceed 50,000,000 roubles.

The defalcation recently discovered in the Taganrog Custom-house in Russia amounts to 70,000,000 roubles.

The nomination of M. Katkoff, editor of the Moscow *Gazette*, as Privy Councillor, is gazetted in St. Petersburg. M. Katkoff is reported to be an "Anglophobe, a strong protectionist, and an advocate of inflation of the currency."

There has been a Cabinet crisis in Egypt. On Thursday a deputation of Notables waited upon Sherif Pasha, President of the Council, and requested him to sign their draft of an organic law. Sherif Pasha referred them to the Khedive, who summoned the English and French Consuls to a consultation, in the course of which Sherif Pasha arrived and tendered his resignation. The military party then demanded the appointment of Mahmoud Baroudi as Prime Minister, and finally forced the Chamber of Notables by threats of violence to agree. Mahmoud Baroudi was accepted by the Khedive, and proceeded to form his Ministry. The new Premier has informed Mr. Malet, the British Consul-General, that the new Government will respect all

international obligations. The programme of the Government has been published. It declares that an organic law scrupulously respecting rights of a private or international character, and engagements of the public debt, will be the first act of the new Ministry, and that the law will also determine the limits of Ministerial responsibility to the Chamber. The Khedive has accepted the programme. The military party are greatly elated at their success.

The Khedive approved the organic law proposed by the new Ministry, and the long-mooted question of the right of the Notables to vote on the budget has been settled by a declaration drawn up by the Ministry, affirming that this right had been delegated by the Khedive to the Notables by virtue of the power conferred on the Khedive by the Sultan, and that the granting of such right is not contrary to international obligation.

In the French Chamber of Deputies on Monday a Republican member interpellated the Government in regard to the revision of the Constitution, and urged the Ministry to undertake the matter. M. de Freycinet replied that the revision bill was the work of the House, and therefore it was not for the Government to present it. He said insuperable obstacles stood in the way of immediate revision, but the Government would act when the proper time arrived. A resolution confiding in the declaration of the Cabinet, and in their firm resolve to realize the reform demanded, was adopted by a vote of 287 to 66.

A declaration prolonging the existing Anglo-French commercial treaty has been signed by Lord Lyons and M. de Freycinet.

The French Senate has elected M. Royer, formerly Minister of Justice, President of the Senate, to succeed M. Leon Say, the actual Minister of Finance.

M. Bontoux and M. Feder, President and Manager respectively of the Union Générale, were arrested on Wednesday evening, at a meeting of the Board of Directors, and it is stated that legal proceedings are to be instituted against several of the directors. The Tribunal of Commerce has formally declared the failure of the Union Générale. The warrant for the arrest of MM. Bontoux and Feder charges them with abuse of trust by speculating with customers' funds.

Slosson, the American player, won the international billiard match in Paris on Friday night, defeating Vignaux by a score of 3,000 to 2,553.

The Italian Chamber of Deputies has adopted the measure for the introduction of the system of *scrutin de liste* in the Italian elections. Premier Depretis made the adoption of the bill a Cabinet question, and obtained it by a vote of 285 to 125.

A despatch from Madrid states that an interview recently took place between the Minister of Foreign Affairs and the Papal Nuncio. The former expressed the great dissatisfaction of the Government at the behavior of several archbishops and bishops, who, he said, openly encouraged a Carlist pilgrimage to Rome. The Government has received a despatch from the Spanish Ambassador at the Vatican, reiterating the statement that the Pope disapproves of a political character being given to the proposed pilgrimage to Rome, and insists that it be carried out under the direction of the clergy.

Both the Austrian and the Hungarian delegations have approved the grant for the suppression of the Herzegovian insurrection. The insurgents have burned Konyitza, an important strategic point between Serayovo and Mostar. There are said to be many desertions from the Austrian ranks.

In the Prussian Landtag recently one of the new Schleswig members refused to take the oath, and accordingly forfeited his seat—proof of the unpopularity of the Prussian régime in Schleswig and the tenacity with which the inhabitants defend their Danish nationality.

MR. BLAINE'S MANIFESTO.

THE first question suggested by the letter on the American Peace Congress, addressed by Mr. Blaine to President Arthur, is what Mr. Blaine's object may have been in writing and publishing it. If he merely wanted to induce the Administration to take a more favorable view of the matter than it had the appearance of doing, then a private communication, conveying strong arguments and friendly advice, would obviously have been the way to attain the end. If, on the other hand, he wanted to make a political point against the Administration, at the risk of rendering it difficult if not impossible for the latter to accept his advice, then the publication of a letter couched in rather caustic terms was the thing. He has evidently with deliberation chosen the latter course, and we may therefore look upon his published letter not as an effort to bring about the American Peace Congress, but as a political manifesto, if not a declaration of war against the Administration. It is not improbable that Mr. Blaine wants to have it so understood.

He makes two points which at first sight seem to be somewhat effective. He charges that his invitation to the Peace Congress addressed to the different American governments was President Arthur's own act, resolved upon after mature consideration of the subject. According to the theory of the Constitution, this is unquestionably true. Every diplomatic document goes out in the name of the President, and, of course, with his implied approval. Mr. Blaine says that President Arthur in this case "received the suggestion with the most appreciative consideration, and, after carefully examining the form of the invitation, directed that it be sent." To this, it would seem, the President might have one of two answers: either that when he directed the invitations to be sent he was misinformed upon the subject and therefore did not understand it, or that he subsequently changed his mind. There is a despatch in Saturday's *Herald*, which has the appearance of being "inspired," and which intimates that Mr. Blaine did not inform the President about the condition of American international politics as he ought to have done, and that the President gave his assent to this and that without a full understanding of existing circumstances. President Arthur is not supposed to have devoted much attention to foreign affairs during his political career, a point in which he does not differ from a majority of our public men. He is therefore likely to depend in a great measure upon the advice of the Secretary of State, who must be assumed to be conversant with the details of affairs, and who under such circumstances should feel a peculiar responsibility in giving the President a clear, true, and comprehensive view of the facts and circumstances to be dealt with. We do not mean to impute to Mr. Blaine any wilful neglect in this regard, but the singular fact that the invitation to the American Peace Congress was not mentioned at all in the President's message, which was otherwise so elaborate, seems to indicate that President Arthur did not then consider it one of the subjects entitled to

special consideration. There will perhaps be further light on this phase of the controversy.

The other point urged by Mr. Blaine is, that the reason avowed by Mr. Frelinghuysen for doubting the expediency of the Peace Congress—namely, that if we "entered into negotiations and consultation for the promotion of peace with selected friendly nationalities without extending a like confidence to other peoples with whom the United States are on equally friendly terms," it might create "jealousy and ill-will" among the latter—is "a voluntary humiliation of this Government" before European powers. While we do not think the apprehension of jealousy and ill-will on the part of nations with whom we are now on friendly terms is the strongest objection to the holding of the American Peace Congress, we do think that Mr. Blaine's flourish about the "voluntary and complete humiliation of the American Government" is far-fetched, and rather a scream of the eagle than a serious argument. One of those powers has very extensive possessions on this continent, with a population larger than any American state excepting the United States, Mexico, and Brazil, that population being in point of intelligence, civilization, thrift, and general character superior to any of them, except the United States. To consider that power in calling a general American Peace Congress would, we think, not be a voluntary humiliation of our Government. It would rather be an evidence of that courtesy and wisdom which are far more effective in carrying important points in international transactions than sensational brilliancy.

It is scarcely possible to treat seriously that portion of Mr. Blaine's letter which relates to our commercial relations with the South American states. He says that the "balance" against us in South American trade last year was \$120,000,000; that this was paid in "foreign exchange, made by shipments of cotton, breadstuffs, etc., to Europe, and chiefly to England, and that if anything should happen to check our exports to Europe, our commercial exchanges with Spanish America would drain us of our reserve of gold coin at a rate of \$100,000,000 per annum, and would probably precipitate a suspension of specie payment in this country." Mr. Blaine notices the fact that we make large purchases from foreign countries at a time when we are making large sales. But if for any reason our sales should fall off, he thinks that our purchases would go on as before, and that we should send all our gold away to pay for them. Political economy tells a different story. It says that buying and selling go *pari passu* and on the same scale, and that when the one falls off the other falls off, and usually in the same ratio. Mr. Blaine seems to think that we are so much fonder of South American products than of our own gold that we are in danger of squandering our whole stock of the latter commodity in one year unless we have a Peace Conference. Only the profoundest ignorance of economic principles or the most daring assurance would talk of regulating commercial affairs by a congress of South American patriots.

It is very much to be regretted that the questions of foreign policy recently brought to the

foreground by Mr. Blaine's diplomatic ventures should at once have become subjects of personal controversy, connected with the "opening of the next Presidential campaign," instead of being considered upon their merits. They must be discussed with impartiality as to persons, if that discussion is to be useful in the way of forming correct opinions. Mr. Blaine has, during his brief administration of the State Department, advanced two ideas touching our relations with the other American republics: one, that the United States, being by far the strongest and also the most just and disinterested member of the sisterhood, should interfere in the difficulty between Chili and Peru, with urgent advice or threats, and the execution of those threats in case of non-compliance, to save Peru from dismemberment and to weaken and gradually exclude European influence in politics and commerce from those republics; and the other, that a congress of special commissioners from all the American republics should be held, in which the United States are to appear, not as the great arbiter or protector, but as an humble unit, on an equal footing as to representation with the rest, for the purpose of agreeing upon some method of settling disputes among them without resort to war. It will be seen at once that these two ideas stand in somewhat glaring contrast to one another, the first representing practice and the second theory; and this contrast is characteristic of the whole scheme.

A great confederation of all the American republics, a grand Amphictyonic council, may at first sight captivate the imagination, but the question is whether, if attempted, its usefulness—in fact, its whole existence—would not be merely imaginary too. Confederations of this kind, if they are to last, must be held together, not by fine theoretical conceptions, but by a distinctly felt and well understood community of interests. Such a common interest would be the necessity of combined efforts in defence against foreign aggression. It was this necessity which at times held the republics of Greece together when the Persian empire threatened their independence. But whatever danger of this kind may have hung over the American republics in times gone by, that danger is long past, and not in the least likely to return. There is no European power now that is in the least tempted to take any risk in an effort to establish anything like foreign dominion, where it does not already exist, in this hemisphere. The latest experiences of Spain in San Domingo, and of France in Mexico, have been so disastrous that no European government will again undertake so hopeless a venture. The European press may now and then speak slightly of the Monroe Doctrine, but every sensible statesman in Europe has long accepted it at heart, for he knows that there are forces on the American continent which on that ground no foreign power is able to cope with. All that foreign governments now want is to have their sensibilities spared while yielding old pretensions to a force of circumstances which they know cannot be resisted. We have, for instance, no doubt that, keeping this in view, American diplomacy can by considerate and clever management easily overcome the difficulties which now

seem to surround the control of the inter-oceanic canal. There is, therefore, absolutely no necessity of providing, by a confederation, for the common defence of American republics against foreign aggression, and thus disappears the strongest element of cohesion.

Next, as to the prevention of wars between these republics, the question is whether, such as they are, any international arrangement would be effective. We should, in this case, not have to do with governments ruled by the same principles of conduct upon which, with other civilized nations, we count as a matter of course. Mr. Christianity, in the confidential letter addressed to Mr. Blaine which we summarized last week, gave a graphic picture of the condition of things in Peru, which applies to nearly all of those republics. Their population consists in great part of a debased and ignorant mongrel race, easily led by political chieftains, a great many of whom are mere adventurers trying to exercise power for their own advantage. If such states and governments are to be kept in order, it must be done by something stronger than the mere moral force of agreements, and in order that the Amphictyonic council should be in any way effective, the United States would soon have to take a position very different from that of a mere "co-equal member," having no more voice and influence than any other. This republic would have to become practically the arbiter and protector of the whole sisterhood, enforcing its decisions with a strong hand. And then we would see a fine selection of adventurers from the little republics hanging around our State Department and the lobbies of Congress, trying to involve our Government in their intrigues and our public men in their schemes. There would be a fine crop of jobs and plundering contrivances, and our attempt to keep peace among our interesting sister republics would soon result in powerfully stimulating the elements of demoralization in our own.

Finally, it is intimated that by the influence which such relations would give us, we could extend our commerce and regain fields of enterprise which we have lost. It is a remarkable circumstance that a certain class of politicians want to extend our commerce by all sorts of antiquated contrivances, such as bounties, or diplomatic tricks, or even war—by all means, in fact, except those which are natural and rational—namely, the removal of those economic restrictions which now prevent us from entering into commercial competition with other nations. On the whole, therefore, the great American confederation appears to us to be a chimical conception, and the President has done well in declaring, through Mr. Frelinghuysen, that, as to this project, he "prefers time for deliberation." Deliberation will probably be the end of it

THE OBJECT OF BANKRUPTCY LAWS.

MR. ROBBINS's report to the Chamber of Commerce on the Bankruptcy Bill now before Congress brings out some facts with regard to the proposed legislation not hitherto generally recognized. A remonstrance against the passage of any law has, it seems, been extensively signed in this and other large cities, and this

brings into view a radical difference of opinion as to the proper object of bankruptcy legislation, which seriously threatens any measures that may be introduced. The "main question," says Mr. Robbins, is whether the administration of the law is to be "official" or non-official—that is to say, whether the liquidation of the bankrupt's estate, and the granting of his discharge, are to be left to the courts or the creditors. The two methods represent really exactly opposite theories of the whole subject of insolvency. Bankrupt laws were, as Mr. Robbins says, originally passed, not for the collection of debts, but "to try the insolvent merchant upon his career as a trader, and to relieve the deserving from imprisonment." The main object of insolvent laws, such as we have in all our States, is to provide means by which the trader may compromise with his creditors, get rid of his obligations, and start afresh. In other words, the old idea of bankruptcy was that it resulted from wrongdoing, from something very like fraud; while the general modern commercial notion of insolvency is that of mere bad luck. In England and the United States the prevailing feeling about failures in business is that they do not carry with them the idea of moral obliquity, and this must inevitably be so in countries where every one is trading more or less on borrowed capital and taking large speculative risks, and that are exposed periodically to commercial crises and panics, involving individuals in disaster which can neither be foreseen nor guarded against. In France the old feeling about insolvency has hitherto survived, and the disgrace attaching to it is still great; but in this respect, as in so many others, French ideas are not altogether modern.

Mr. Robbins and his committee, however, declare substantially that the value of the pending bankrupt law will depend altogether upon its disciplinary character. "Any law," he says, "will prove a disappointment" that does not recognize the fact that the original object of bankrupt laws was the trial of the merchant, "because the discouragement of insolvency is much more important than any economical or speedy settlement of insolvent obligations." All experience shows that creditors as a body care little or nothing about the causes which have led to the insolvent's failure, but are satisfied if they can only have the debtor's estate wound up and distributed as quickly and economically as possible. Creditors, therefore, cannot be entrusted with the discipline of the bankrupt nor with the protection of their own interests. Courts of justice are the only tribunals fit to be clothed with such powers, and the committee "regard any law that will allow composition settlements without court supervision unjust, and that such a law, if enacted, will prove to be as unwise in practice as a permission to compound felony in the interest of owners of stolen property."

The history of bankruptcy legislation in this country makes it more than doubtful whether an act which has for its main purpose the discipline of the debtor will ever get through Congress. Three bankrupt laws have been passed by Congress—one at the beginning of the century, one after the panic of 1837, and the third at the close of the war. Each

one of these was passed after the trade of the country had gone through a period of serious depression, which had produced widespread disaster. Each one was passed at the instance of debtors who wished to clear off their debts and start anew. The reason why Congressional legislation was asked was in order to get the benefit of a uniform law, so that the discharge should be applicable to the whole country. As soon as these laws had answered their purpose they were in each case repealed, and the country fell back upon the local insolvency statutes. The present movement for a bankruptcy law has the great advantage of coming up at a time of general prosperity, when there is no weight of debt in any quarter, and no necessity for a class pressure from either debtors or creditors. It is an excellent opportunity for considering all the general questions involved upon their merits; and Mr. Robbins's committee seems to be inclined to go as much too far in one way as Congress has on previous occasions been ready to go in another. There is not any likelihood that public opinion will ever be more strongly in favor of disciplining debtors through Congressional than through State legislation. Why should it be? The States have, locally, in the absence of Congressional legislation, all the power possessed by Congress, but the insolvent laws throughout the country show no trace of any public opinion in favor of a trial of the trader's business career. What they do show is that public opinion is in favor of treating a failure in business as an accident, which entitles the debtor to sympathy and assistance rather than to punishment. Calling him a bankrupt and legislating with regard to him at Washington instead of at the various State capitals will make no difference in this feeling.

The value of a national bankruptcy act lies in its uniformity—in its covering the whole country; and the aim of Congress should be to pass a law securing as far as possible justice between debtor and creditor—that is to say, the surrender of all the assets, and their equitable distribution in as speedy and economical a manner as possible. In other words, equitable distribution of the assets, and the discharge of the debtor honestly surrendering these, and not the punishment of the bankrupt, should be steadily held in view as the object of the law, for we may rely upon it that there is no public opinion in the country to maintain disciplinary bankruptcy legislation long on the statute book, if it can be placed there at all.

ENGLISH POLITICS.

THE meeting of the English Parliament this week opens what promises to be an even more exciting session than the last. When the last opened, Mr. Gladstone was fresh from one of the greatest victories ever won at the polls, and his antagonists were cowed and even dazed by his success. They have now somewhat recovered their senses, and even flatter themselves that a Conservative reaction has set in which would make it safe for them, if the chance offered itself, to appeal to the country once more. On the various questions of foreign policy which the Beaconsfield Cabinet left unsettled when they went out of

office, the Tories almost acknowledge themselves irretrievably beaten. They will not appeal to the constituencies about Afghanistan, or Russia, or even the Boers. They occasionally still affect to suffer from burning shame over Sir George Colley's unrevenged defeat at Majuba Hill. Their anti-Russian craze has almost subsided, and, curiously enough, they show little disposition to take part in the protests now made in philanthropic circles in England against the connivance of the Russian Government at the maltreatment of the Jews. The Jews are not favorites in Conservative circles, and good Tories are not easily moved by "outrages" even when chargeable to Russians.

In fact, most of their weapons of war against Mr. Gladstone are now drawn from the Irish land question, which has entered on a new stage since the Sub-Commissioners began to render their decisions. The reductions they have made in rents have been very serious, inasmuch as most estates are mortgaged on the old rental, and on the new basis are worth very little over the encumbrances. Some of the decisions, too, cut deep into the very vitals of landed property—particularly the recent one on the "Healy Clause" of the Act, which lays it down that no length of occupation under a lease exhausts a tenant's interest in improvements made by him and makes them a proper ground for increase of rent, unless he has received formal compensation for them from the landlord. This has been confirmed on appeal by the Commission itself, and will probably be also confirmed in the Law Court, to which another appeal still lies.

In consequence of all this, the Irish landlords have raised the cry both of confiscation and of breach of faith, and it has been eagerly taken up in England. They say that the understanding in Parliament when the Land Act was passed was, that it was intended mainly to give security of tenure, and would not diminish the value of property, whereas it has really diminished it from one-quarter to one-third, and they therefore demand compensation out of the Treasury. Of their getting compensation there is no chance whatever. In fact, the claim was demolished almost as soon as it was made, by Lord Derby, in one of his neatest and most remorseless bits of dialectics. The Conservatives have probably just as little intention as the Liberals to favor any such compensation, but they are none the less ready to treat the decisions of the Commission as acts of spoliation, and the Irish landlords as the victims of Gladstone's demagogery. They say very little for the Irish landlords as objects of compassion, because they well know that they are a class for whom it is difficult to excite sympathy in England. But any stick is good enough to beat a dog with, and the "plundered" Irish proprietor, if he is good for nothing else, is an excellent illustration of the working of Gladstone's wickedness and perfidy. In fact, the depravity of Gladstone's nature may be said, without exaggeration, to furnish at present the leading topic of Tory speeches; and the attacks on him, savage as they used to be when Beaconsfield was in power, were never as savage as they are now.

In those days Tory criticism of him was softened by contempt for him as a hair-brained rhetorician, who would never again fill any place of responsibility. These criticisms are now, however, sharpened by the consciousness that he is the most powerful man in England, the man hardest to shake in his seat since the younger Pitt. He is denounced by some as the enemy of property; by others as the enemy of religion, his own piety being a mere cloak for inbred sympathy with all assaults both on the throne and the altar. His Irish legislation shows that he is really a Communist; his willingness to let Bradlaugh into the House shows that he is really an atheist, with a sneaking partiality for indecency.

These ravings, which for the last two or three months have been reported nearly every week from the Conservative stump, would have little importance except as illustrations of the fanatical violence of the upper classes when threatened in their pockets or their privileges, if it were not for the indications they give of the position the Tories are likely to take on the question of parliamentary procedure. This question is undoubtedly the most important of all those which are to arise in the coming session, and it will be the first to arise. It must, as Mr. Gladstone and Lord Hartington have both repeatedly said, precede all others. The omission of all mention of it in the Queen's speech has no significance, because no suggestion is ever made from the throne on a matter of this sort, and if made would be considered a breach of privilege. The Conservative temper is now so exacerbated that there is little doubt that any weapons against Gladstone will be considered lawful. It is very much like the temper of the "chevau-légers" of the French Chamber, in the days before "the 16th of May," when the Opposition were treated in debate as malefactors, whose proper place was the jail. The Ministry will be opposed and impeded by every means which the rules of the House permit. The policy of obstruction will be taken up where the Irish left it, and tried unflinchingly to make legislation difficult or impossible. In fact, the Ministry must meet it at once, before attempting anything else, unless they are prepared to pass the present session, as they passed the last, in the discussion of a single bill. They must get for the majority the right of cutting off debate. This would, no doubt, be a serious step. It would be a complete departure from one of the dearest traditions of the House of Commons—namely, that it is a club of gentlemen, who do not need many rules, who are governed in the main by good feeling and mutual consideration, and who recognize easily, by common consent, when a measure has been sufficiently debated and a division should be taken. It would, in short, to use Mr. Bagehot's phrase, be the substitution in England of "government by public meeting" for "government by club," and would involve the introduction of those summary rules and processes for the preservation of order which public meetings find necessary. It will therefore be fiercely resisted, and the resistance will probably not be confined to the more rancorous Tories.

It is still uncertain to what extent Mr. Gladstone's following will stand by him in subjecting the House of Commons to the "clôture." There are many good Liberals who shrink from robbing it of the distinction which it has so long held of being the only legislative assembly in the world which was managed mainly by comity. It will, moreover, be difficult to satisfy even those who favor the clôture about the guarantees against its abuse. So that the strength of the Ministry on this crucial question is still not easy to ascertain, and, before a combination of the Conservatives, the Irish, and Whig deserters, may prove unequal to the task. In that case, it is difficult to see how Mr. Gladstone could, after the declarations which both he and his lieutenants have made as to the absolute necessity of the change, avoid appealing to the country by a dissolution. The Tories have begun to say lately that they would like nothing better, and the Liberals would not be so sure of the result as they were a year ago. But that the Ministry would come back with sufficient, even if diminished, strength, there is little doubt, though it would be greatly to be regretted if Mr. Gladstone's stock of vitality had to be again drawn on by the heat and fury of a general election.

LIBRARIES IN BALTIMORE.

THE gift of over a million dollars to the city of Baltimore for the establishment of a free circulating library upon municipal foundations suggests a review of Baltimore libraries in general. Before the announcement of Mr. Pratt's gift, free lending libraries on a small scale and of a secular character were already in existence. Three years ago, in a night-school for boys which was started at a mission-station of Grace Church, a circulating library began to develop, as it were, by spontaneous generation. In the first place, a lad asked the Superintendent if he might take a certain book home. This was irregular, but a patron of the school ventured to assume the responsibility. The demand for books naturally increased, and at first the gentleman endeavored to meet it by allowing boys to take books from his private library. These naturally went the rounds, and fresh contributions were obtained from friends of the school. A library was organized with a nucleus of fifteen books. The first year it increased to 250 volumes, the second year to 1,000, when the collection was legally incorporated as "The Baltimore Free Circulating Library." During the year it grew to 1,400 volumes, which are now distributed at library stations in four quarters of the city.

Books are sent out from the original centre in small lots of 200 or more, and when they have been read at one place they are removed to another and a fresh supply is substituted. Thus the whole library circulates. During the past year this collection of 1,400 books, administered at the incredibly small expense of \$135, has been drawn upon 4,506 times. Considering that the station-libraries are open only once or twice a week, and in no case for more than seven months in the year (in one case for only two), this is very remarkable. But more extraordinary is the fact that the loss of books has been less than one per cent. At the station in East Baltimore not a book has been lost. In this quarter boys have clubbed together under the authority of a librarian, one of their number, who rules his tribe with almost absolute power. The boys pay taxes of two or three cents a week for the purchase of fuel, so as to keep open their reading-room every

evening from seven until ten o'clock. This room was rented on the ground floor of a private house, and is a cheery place, with its good fire and tables spread with illustrated newspapers, magazines, and checker-boards. Anybody can have free access to the conveniences of this "Club," provided his moral character is endorsed by a member, or a policeman, or any person of established reputation. Another interesting branch of the Baltimore Free Circulating Library has been instituted in the new mission-house of the Society of Friends, in the vicinity of Federal Hill, which was the site of Butler's battery commanding Baltimore in war-time, but which is now in process of transformation from an unsightly clay-bank into a sightly terrace, affording a fine view of the city and harbor.

Still another free library, although quite independent of the above group, has been in successful operation for the past two or three years at Canton, among the rolling-mills and oil works. This library is open not only week days but also on Sundays, and that, too, by the special request of the clergymen of the neighborhood. The reading-room is well supplied with magazines and newspapers. The whole enterprise is in connection with the Workingmen's Institute of Canton, which comprises lectures by instructors from the Johns Hopkins University, public readings, concerts, and the like. The employees of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad have also their free lending library and a course of free lectures by teachers of biology from the University. At the first lecture, which was upon the suggestive topic "How Skulls and Backbones are Made," President Garrett reminded the audience that Johns Hopkins left all that portion of his estate which was invested in the stock of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad to the University that bears his name, and that the earnings from that stock were, therefore, its chief support. He said it had occurred to the president of the road that its employees and their families might secure some of the benefits to be derived from that University, and he had accordingly spoken to some of the professors, who had consented to give a few instructive lectures. Thus the workingmen of the laboratory and machine-shop are brought together. It is wonderful to observe the interest of manufacturing districts in libraries and reading-rooms. Woodbury has just organized such an associate institution, in which all classes and sects, Protestants and Catholics, are happily united. Catonsville, a place of less than 2,000 inhabitants, has maintained for several years a similar association, encouraging not only reading, but also music, the drama, and the playing of billiards in a reputable place. It is noteworthy that the establishment of the Catonsville Library as "a general meeting-place for citizens" has lately resulted in a memorial to the Legislature for the incorporation of this village into a town by itself. The importance of schools and library associations as germs of corporate life, and as points of cohesion for church sects, is gradually becoming apparent.

On the first of January, 1882, the Mercantile Library Association, which was first started in 1839 by a few clerks and business men, opened its doors to the public in a new building, erected as headquarters for the trustees of the Wilson Sanitarium (another monument of Baltimore private philanthropy—for securing, in summer, country and sea air for sick people too poor to leave the city). The Wilson building, the upper part of which is devoted to offices, is situated upon a convenient corner, and fronts fashionable Charles Street. Baltimoreans passing this fine new building on New Year's Day could look in from the sidewalk upon a most inviting scene. Naturally everybody entered to attend the reception given by the president and librarian of an old

Baltimore association, now rescued from its basement quarters and side-hill tendencies, and firmly established in a convenient, well-lighted, highly attractive place. The spacious rooms, their comfortable and even elegant appearance, the evidently increased supply of new books, papers, and magazines, the perfect ease and freedom of access to the shelves—these things, combined with the well-known fact that the president of the Association had made the transfer at his own expense, and had guaranteed the rental of the building for five years, revolutionized the Mercantile Library in a day. The membership began to increase, old members returned, everybody determined to pay his subscription, and it is now confidently believed that the Mercantile will once more become self-supporting, notwithstanding the immediate prospect of a Free Circulating Library for all Baltimore. A certain class of people will prefer, on some accounts, a library which is not so free and not so public; and the Charles Street corner has many attractions.

Three weeks after the New Year's opening of the Mercantile came the letter of Enoch Pratt to the Mayor and City Council of Baltimore announcing his proposition to erect upon his Mulberry Street lot (valued at \$30,000) a fire-proof library building, capable of holding 200,000 volumes, and costing, "when ready for occupancy," in the summer of 1883, about \$225,000. This entire property, embracing grounds and building, Mr. Pratt proposed to deed to the city, and then to pay over the sum of \$833,333 33, making a total gift equivalent to \$1,088,333 33. The only condition which Mr. Pratt attached to this magnificent donation was that the city should make the Library a municipal institution, by creating an annuity of \$50,000 forever, payable quarterly to a close corporation of trustees, for the future maintenance of the Library in its various branches. The point of the whole matter is not generally understood. The Library, according to Mr. Pratt's idea, is to be, not privately endowed, but a public institution, supported by public moneys. He gives outright to the city of Baltimore the sum of \$833,333 33, and suggests that it be added to the sinking fund for the gradual payment of the city debt. Of course, if applied to library purposes, the income of the money donation, at the rate of six per cent., would yield the precise amount of the required annuity, although at present rates there would probably be a deficiency which the city would have to make up by self-taxation. But that is not the point. The city of Baltimore can apply the interest or principal of this donation to any public purpose whatever, and it may even lose the whole amount by bad investments, but will remain bound forever to pay an annuity of \$50,000 to support its Free Public Library, for, by an act of the City Council, on the 31st of January, signed by the Mayor February 3, the terms of Mr. Pratt's generous and far-sighted offer were formally accepted. In token of public appreciation of private munificence, the municipal government recommends that the trustees, whom Mr. Pratt is to appoint, organize under the name of "The Enoch Pratt Free Library of Baltimore City."

Workmen are now preparing the ground for the new building, the details of which were planned by an architect under the personal direction of the Provost of the Peabody Institute, who has been Mr. Pratt's chief adviser in this regard. The Provost, in an article explaining to the Baltimore public the plans of the new library—an article published at the same time as Mr. Pratt's letter—says:

"Baltimore has long needed a popular library to supplement her noble scholars' library in the

Peabody Institute. That collection of books will supply students with all they require in their difficult and recondite pursuits, but in no sense can it supply the want of the great mass of the people. The great want of books at home, which the Peabody Library, as a reference library, cannot possibly meet, will now be supplied by the munificent endowment of Mr. Pratt. These two libraries will form a complete library system, each supplementing the other; each supplying a want that the other does not reach. And there will be no rivalry between them, unless it be a generous rivalry for excellence, each in its own sphere of usefulness. One is intended for scholars, the other for the people. One is designed to promote the highest culture of the learned few, the other to increase the knowledge and intelligence of the busy many."

No individual benefaction is altogether independent of public or private influences and of historical environment. Broad schemes of philanthropy like that of John McDonogh, who left \$1,400,000 to the cities of Baltimore and New Orleans for the education of poor boys; that of George Peabody, who left \$1,250,000 for the founding of the Peabody Institute in Baltimore; that of Johns Hopkins, who left \$7,000,000, one half for a hospital, the other half for a university—such philanthropy is the product not alone of broad minds, but of broad experience in the world and of wise association with suggestive men; of a careful study of existing institutions, and of a keen discernment of the spirit of the times. It would be interesting if Mr. Pratt should ever describe the formative process of his own great plan, which originated ten years ago, but which has grown by conference with friends and by observation of existing libraries, even of the Mercantile Association, and of those small branches of the first "Baltimore Free Circulating Library." Mr. Pratt has been one of the trustees of the Peabody Institute from its very foundation. His legal adviser, who drew the will in which Mr. Pratt's idea was first outlined, was a member of the same board. No one realized more fully than did these men that the Peabody plan did not embrace the idea of a popular lending library. In a letter to the original board of Peabody trustees, the founder of the Institute provided for "an extensive library, to be well furnished in every department of knowledge—to be maintained for the free use of all persons who may desire to consult it—to satisfy the researches of students who may be engaged in the pursuit of knowledge not ordinarily attainable in the private libraries of the country." He distinctly recommended "that it shall not be constructed upon the plan of a circulating library; and that the books shall not be allowed to be taken out of the building, except in very special cases, and in accordance with rules adapted to them as exceptional privileges." Evidently Mr. Peabody's idea was to establish a library for scholarly research, something like the British Museum. Other provisions for his Institute show that he was aiming to engraft upon Baltimore the offshoots of the highest culture attainable in the great capitals of Europe. He instituted "lectures by the most capable and accomplished scholars and men of science." He planned for a Conservatory of Music, a Gallery of Art, and an annual exhibition of paintings. He established a system of prizes, not for common schools, but for high schools. He aimed at the higher education, and meant to elevate the masses, not by descending to their standards, but by raising theirs to his. And the far-sighted wisdom of the Peabody foundation is now evident in many ways, in a growing interest in libraries and good books, in the development of the "high school" idea into a university, in a wonderful popular interest in scientific lectures, in classical music, and art in general. Nothing proves so well the power of high ideas as their influence in creating a demand for higher

things. The Peabody Institute and the Johns Hopkins University make their influence felt in the mechanic's workshop as well as in schools and libraries.

It is impossible in a few words to give any adequate conception of the present resources and growing wealth of the Peabody Library. That collection for scholarly research was begun in 1861, and now embraces 73,000 volumes of a strictly scientific character. Popular works, ephemeral literature, and "the latest novel" have been rigorously excluded. The trustees of the Peabody Institute, who are among the most respected, influential, and cultivated men in Baltimore, have held firmly to the Peabody idea of securing the highest and the best. "Quietly, without pause, without parade, amid much ignorant cavilling and vituperation, they have pursued their work of collecting a library which should furnish to the student the best books in all languages, and in all departments of human knowledge." The collection was begun through the aid of specialists in various parts of the country, who recommended books, many of which were purchased by European agents. Professors at Harvard, Yale, Brown, Virginia, and Michigan Universities, lecturers at the Peabody Institute, scientific men in Washington, specialists and gentlemen of culture in Baltimore, have all co-operated with the Provost of the Peabody Institute in his laborious and responsible work of choosing a library for scholars. At first there was naturally little demand for the original sources of knowledge, works of science in foreign languages, the collections of learned societies, and the proceedings of the great academies of Europe. "We cannot create scholars or readers to use our library," said the Provost in an address to the public in 1871, "but we can make a collection of books which all scholars will appreciate, when they shall appear among us, as they surely will some day." That day has come. Already in 1871, the idea of founding a great university was in the mind of Johns Hopkins, and already he had chosen upon his board of trustees several of the managers of the Peabody trust. The two institutions now supplement one another. A learned foundation is slowly building, with a library of research for its corner-stone.

The Johns Hopkins University does not attempt to duplicate collections already existing in Baltimore unless there is some special demand. The institution enjoys the incalculable advantage of free access to the Peabody Library. One or two University classes meet in a small lecture-room of the Institute for the sake of using its valuable resources. The same privileges are accorded by the Maryland Historical Society, where also University classes have met, and where there is an excellent collection of Americana—manuscripts, pamphlets, and files of old newspapers, some of which latter have been utilized by Von Holst in his studies for the 'Constitutional History of the United States.' By the courtesy of members of the Baltimore bar, the Law Library is also made easy of access to advanced students of history and political science. The Maryland Episcopal Library, the legacy of the late Right Rev. W. R. Whittingham to his diocese—a unique collection of ecclesiastical literature (Catholic and Protestant), comprising ancient folios and rare editions of the classics, church fathers, and schoolmen—this modern cloister is open to advanced students of church history and institutions. The library of the Johns Hopkins has a character quite its own. In point of size this collection, now numbering about 11,700 bound volumes, is inferior to five other libraries in Baltimore, that of the Peabody Institute (73,000), Mercantile (37,000), Maryland Institute

(19,000), Odd Fellows' (20,500), Maryland Historical Society (17,000). But it would be unjust to measure the efficiency of the University library by any material scale. At the outset, the trustees of the Johns Hopkins seem to have conceived the idea that a library should form an organic part of University work. The newly-appointed professors, associates, and fellows were consulted as to what books they needed for the immediate prosecution of their researches, and those books were first ordered. From the very foundation, the library has grown in the direction of special working-collections, rather than of a library-museum. Small department-libraries have been formed in separate rooms, with facilities for quiet research. The systematic policy of the University has been toward colonizing special libraries in the very class-rooms and work-shops. The chemists have long had their own reference-library in the laboratory-building, so that students, without personal inconvenience or neglect of work in hand, can look up special points in any of the complete sets of mechanical journals, Liebig's *Annalen*, and the like. The Professor of Greek has his seminary-library, and other departments are working in the same direction.

In addition to these special libraries, there is a University reading-room, which is the favorite resort of students and instructors, and is, on the whole, a unique place. Large, comfortable, attractively furnished, well-lighted and cheery, it may be termed a University parlor, or the Johns Hopkins family library, where all departments are entirely at home, and where every member of the University household can help himself to books or periodicals. There is no obstructive policy on the part of librarians. The books are upon open shelves, and within easy reach from the floor. The collection contains chiefly works for general reference, not merely encyclopedias, dictionaries of various languages, maps, hand-books of biography, art, and science, but also works of classic, Germanic, French, and English literature, history, philosophy, and science—standard books which not merely persons of liberal culture, but even so-called "narrow specialists" have frequent occasion to consult. Men take the volumes they want, sit down at one of the long tables, and work quietly, without asking questions, for everybody seems to know where everything is to be found. When they have finished, they return the books to their places, as though they belonged to a private library. If a book is to be taken away, of course it must be charged by the library attendant, who employs a card-system of receipts and keeps an alphabetical account of all absent volumes, which may be recalled if demand arises, but which otherwise may be renewed from time to time. In the reading-room may also be found, arranged by departments upon long tables, a remarkable collection of periodicals, published in various countries—England, Scotland, France, Germany, Austria, Holland, Belgium, Italy, Greece, India, and the United States. Some of these foreign periodicals are the proceedings of royal academies and learned societies, notably of London, Edinburgh, Dublin, Paris, Berlin, Vienna, St. Petersburg, Copenhagen, Rome, Venice, and Calcutta; and some of them are received in exchange for the mathematical, philological, and other scientific publications of the University.

One of the most interesting features, perhaps, of the library management is the so-called "new-book department," for the exhibition, in a special case, or occasionally upon long tables in the reading-room, of new French, German, and English books which may be of special value to University men. Copies of these books may be recommended for the library by instructors, and permanently retained, or may be disposed of to individuals. Nothing is ordered for the mere sake

of possession. Value in use and the law of demand and supply control the choice of books. The main idea is to keep pace with the progress of science and with the advancing needs of specialists. Instead, therefore, of becoming simply an interesting cabinet of literary curiosities, the University library has always been a busy laboratory of science, where new truth is discovered by a study of its living forms.

CHARLESTON REVISITED.—II.

JANUARY 23, 1882.

It is gratifying to see that the effect of the new prosperity begins to show itself in the schools. There are, again, private schools of high character for girls. If there is not very much talk of "higher education," etc., there is the serious steadiness, the appreciation of the value of genuine study, which comes from the long want of opportunities for it. The public schools, having to carry the dead weight of the negro population, cannot do all they once did; but it is only justice to say that, in proportion to means, more is done than in very many Northern cities. There is a charge of \$40 per year at the High School for Boys, which is really a high school. The girls' school, formerly of the same grade, is now a grammar school, teaching only English, with a class for normal training. It is in spacious quarters, and the pupils are from all classes in society, as in any Northern city not overwhelmed by a foreign population. The condition of the boys and girls in the country, which is so sparsely settled that no possible effort can maintain common schools within their reach, is a matter of painful interest. Nothing can make up what has been lost to this generation in that regard during the last twenty years. In the darkest times in Charleston two schools were started which have done untold good. In the "Church of the Holy Communion Institute," which now occupies the old United States Arsenal, 2,100 boys have been pupils since 1867—a large proportion staying until fitted for college or business. Not half of them have paid full tuition—a great many nothing at all. Walking through the grounds with the devoted head of the school, the Rev. Mr. Porter, and listening to his earnest gratitude for the help received from the North, it was incredible that in the mid-winter of '61 I had myself seen the Stars and Stripes drawn down from that staff, and the blue palmetto flag run up in their place. Not less important is the school for girls connected with the Home for Widows. It was started by a few ladies of the old Huguenot Church, but it has the support of all denominations, and receives girls without any distinction as to religious faith. They come mainly from the country, and are well-born, but too poor to pay for the education they ought to have. The course of study includes (beyond thorough English) Latin, French, and music, thus fitting them to be school teachers or governesses, or, better still, to return home, as they often do, to teach younger brothers and sisters. The self-denial which the beginning of this work must have cost in such a time of extreme poverty would shrink from public praise, but it has its place of honor in the unwritten annals of South Carolina.

A torn and battered straw hat is a curious travesty of the cap of liberty, was the repeated reflection of the first half-hour on the morning drive from the railway-station, watching the black women and girls on their way home from market. In the old time they had the broad-brimmed hat in the fields, but in the cities, while the old "Maumers" were gay in the turbans of Madras handkerchiefs, the younger women and girls walked bare-headed on working-days.

Now there is none so poor as not to wear a hat. Shape, material, or age seems of no consequence, so it be a hat. At church, a woman of fifty, comfortably dressed, wore over a dull gray headkerchief a man's coarse straw hat. In the street, a tall girl, unable to lift her feet lest her slatternly boots should fall off, had both ribbon and feather on her hat. Of minor judgments about the negro none used to be more frequent than that upon the fondness for bright colors. More than one gallery in church was like nothing so much as a parterre of tulips; but, left to themselves, the scarlet and orange have disappeared. The women at the African Methodist Church were neatly dressed, but in sombre or dingy color; and the market, even on Christmas Eve, had not one bright bit in it except the fruit and the red bows fastened on the stiff white sunbonnets of two tiny negro babies. Generally in dress the women look much like white people, so that dress is more varied, but it does not seem so substantial and hardly so comfortable as formerly.

There is less outward manifestation of gayety, less singing and laughter. The mirth of Christmas week had a subdued tone, but the faces are contented—too contented, it is often said, for they do not care about making for themselves tidy and thrifty homes. In this respect a marked distinction is asserted between the country and the city negro. The former "have comfortable little farms, cows, and a horse and buggy to drive to church." Upon the emancipation, the negroes of the Sea Islands near Charleston, except the few faithful household servants, flocked *en masse* to the city. They have only the wants of a simple people, and these are so easily supplied in a mild climate that they have as yet learned almost nothing of economy—that is, the best use of the means they have. Some are extremely poor. One scarcely knows how they live; yet there is absolutely no begging in the streets, and a negro beggar at the door is a thing as unheard of as it was in the old time. All testimony agrees upon two points: "They are improvident. The man who earns three dollars a week will spend three; he who earns five will spend five; but they are *learning* to save." "They are thriftless in their daily living, but they are eager to get hold of the land."

This winter, wages for men are so high that there are complaints about house-servants. Many women who are glad to work in hard times will do nothing now. Outside the families who have retained their old servants or their children, the question of domestic service is to the full as difficult as it ever was at the North. Even the quite young women insist upon going home at night, often very long distances. "We do not sleep upon the premises," said the very deliberate housemaid. They spend the night harmlessly enough, but their late hours keep them tired and dull. A servant of the old type will work double tides rather than put up with one "who has grown up since de war." "Uncle Remus's" disdain of young Africa is repeated every day all over the South. The women are worse off than the men. It is one of the most serious evils of this transition-time that there is no upper rank of trained servants of their own class for the girls to look up to. They used to be sent to dressmakers, hair-dressers, pastry-cooks, etc., to be taught; now a few do exceedingly good work of their own free will, but there is no sort of industrial training. The public schools are so crowded, so heavily burdened, that to teach sewing even is impossible.

The distrust excited by the failure of the Freedmen's Bank is not yet allayed, so that only a small part of the negro's savings is invested in that way; but sums (really large in the aggre-

gate) are contributed to the various friendly societies—the burial clubs, and the like. A grand funeral is a negro's pride, and the more intelligent who manage these societies have very wisely availed themselves of this feeling, and have united the provision for the funeral with that for the care of the sick. There is actually a carriage society, which sends so many carriages (pro rata) to a funeral, and the members attend in white jackets and black bands. A woman who died this autumn had received through a long illness seven dollars a week as the return from her contributions to one of these societies.

On a lonely road, a dozen miles from the city, we met a rude cart and a mule driven by a negro man. Two young boys were with him, and in the cart was a coffin. They were on their way to one of the old plantations to bury their dead in the place of their fathers. It has been a touching proof of the fidelity of old attachments, and of the still surviving power of the old personal ties, that this privilege of burial at their former home has become a much-coveted and often-sought boon. It is the more remarkable inasmuch as the country within reach of the city has been so completely deserted. In that great Saint Andrew's parish only two houses were left standing, and scarcely a family has returned to its former home. Yet the black people have constantly found out their former masters, and asked leave to carry home the dead. It has been a melancholy mode of measuring the swift disappearance of the former slaves. "Scarcely one is left now." "Not the old only are gone, but the middle-aged and the strong young women." Every one who lived on the Sea Islands says the same thing. In the city old people are rarely seen. The solemn white-headed men that looked so dignified at church are all gone, but the streets swarming with young men and boys and little children leave no doubt of the actual increase in numbers. In the city the black people are but very little less than one-half the population, while on the Islands in some parishes they are even six and eight to one white man. In a single school in Charleston there are 1,400 negro children.

The teachers are all white—the principal is a man; all the other teachers are women, many of them ladies of great refinement, themselves once mistresses of slaves, whom necessity has compelled to seek employment. They are working in good faith, and with an infinite patience, and they undoubtedly make the best teachers for the blacks. From their intimate knowledge of them, they know when it is wise to insist and when to yield. Numbers vary. One primary teacher has had one hundred and eighty pupils under her charge at once. The first class in the intermediate grade averages fifty. In this class they are of every size and age, from boys of eleven to women of twenty-two and twenty-three. In this class they learn long division. Arithmetic is the thing they care most for. The boys are brighter and quicker than the girls, but the girls are more docile and more attentive, which makes good the difference. The girls can be managed without corporal punishment; the boys not, for a rattan is a small matter to them, since many of their fathers are likely to use either a rope or a club upon them. So few have books that the classes must be taught as if they had none. Of school-work as such you hear only praise. It is frequently said by white parents of even such studies as algebra: "It would be a good thing if our children of the same age could do as well as those darkies do." The doubt, either logically or practically, comes in the step beyond. It cannot be denied that so far, for almost all, even those who go through the whole school course, progress ceases at four-

teen and fifteen. More than half who can write and spell creditably on leaving school cannot do it in two years' time. The reasons are obvious. Although it is universal that the parents care to have the children go to school, and make willing sacrifices to keep them decently clothed, almost all must go to work, and that mainly in employments which offer very little stimulus to the brain. There are no home associations whatever to keep up the school influence. Not only are there no books, but very, very few have good lights in their houses at night. There are evening schools, but that at best means only a small fraction.

Nevertheless, there is no word of discouragement. "They do more than I ever would have believed possible when I knew them as slaves." "They will surely make an intelligent laboring class." The tone of speech about them is more than kindly; it is respectful. And here might be noted a change that has its significance. In the old time the word "slave" was never heard; now it simply has its own meaning, as stating a fact of the past, and is used as needs be, with not the slightest special thought or emphasis. Remarks like these are made every day: "We ourselves have beheld with astonishment the good behavior of our own people—those who were slaves before the war. We have been ourselves amazed at their good conduct under the influences to which they were subjected directly after the war." To an inquiry about the character of a colored man, the reply was: "R—! Oh! everybody trusts him. He had a hard time of it from the negroes in the dark days, because he stood by the white people; but now they see he was right." "H— has always voted with the Republicans, but he is held in much esteem here, because more than once in times of excitement and danger in the country he stood between the blacks and the whites." For him, upon his own single bond, \$2,500 had just been secured from strangers to him (distinctly not Republicans), to save his farm. If it is said, "There are still negroes who think that everything a Southerner tells them is a lie," on the other hand you will hear words like these, spoken from the experience of a long and honored life: "No one has thought more highly of those who have really succeeded than their own old masters. They have come back to us. Those who have done best were the first to do so. In five years' time now, they will all have come back to us."

It was to be expected the negroes would prefer to have their own churches separate, but it cannot on the whole have been other than a loss. There are but few men yet, of their own color, who are fitted by education, or the traditions of education, to be the teachers they need. Nor in saying this do I forget the admirable preacher to whom we listened in the African Methodist Church—a man of bearing in every way so suitable and becoming that comment on it seems almost impertinent. This, however, was a city church, poor enough, but still the best able to keep the better men. The one service showed what occasion the minister may have for the simplest elementary instruction to his people. Five babies were presented for christening. Two of the mothers were accompanied by their husbands; the other three were alone. "Where is the father?" asked the minister of one of them. She nodded, and he said, "Let all the fathers come forward." Three men at once came from the rear. All the parents were very young. The minister prompted them for all the answers to his questions. The church was new and fresh. To the question how old it was, a woman replied: "It was made up since the Union." Opposite it stands a vast old church, once famous throughout the South as almost the

only church composed wholly of negroes. Its great congregation, often fully three thousand, was gathered by the care and zeal of the late Dr. Girardeau. So long as he lived the church maintained itself, spite of the changes around it; but after his death the preference for colored preachers led to a break-up, though some two or three hundred remained faithful to his successor. Though the old place of worship is deserted, these have kept together under his charge, and form a strong working church.

It is an inference in which one would be glad to be mistaken, but the blacks seem to care less for churchgoing than formerly, and the difference is greater than the general change in feeling on the subject will account for. It is, alas! one instrumentality the less for their education and elevation. No thoughtful man can study the present situation without perceiving at once its hopefulness and its hopelessness—hopeful because of so much of beginning; hopeless, because the end is so far off. Never had people a heavier burden, never a harder duty, than the white people of the South to-day. Not to have abandoned it in despair is the surest proof that they will at last succeed. No one who realizes what the work is can withhold his admiration at the patience, the faith, the devotion with which, in the midst of their own poverty, they have set themselves to do it.

THE DECLINE OF GAMBETTA'S ADMINISTRATION.

PARIS, January 10, 1882.

THE honeymoon of Gambetta's Ministry has been of the shortest. He was lifted to power by an almost irresistible force. After the general elections everybody felt that he must become the Premier, just as Mr. Gladstone became the Premier in England after the defeat of the Conservatives. Would he keep M. Ferry, who almost asked for the honor of serving under him? Would he admit M. de Freycinet and M. Léon Say? These were subordinate questions. He could do as he liked; bring fresh men—*his men*—with him, or take a few old staggers. The fact remained clear, he was to be the leader; he was to be the Cabinet; there was no dissentient voice—whatever his colleagues might be, his *ministère* was named beforehand the *grand ministère*.

How rapidly these first impressions vanished! How fickle is public opinion! First, there was a little disappointment caused by the choice of some of the Ministers. The Conservatives, who secretly are ready to consider Gambetta as their last protector, were much annoyed at the nomination of M. Paul Bert, who represents irreligious intolerance. They could not regret M. Ferry and M. Constans, who broke the doors of the convents, but what could they expect from M. Bert, who cannot speak patiently, not only of the Jesuits, but of any priest?

The second blow came with the Roustan trial. Though Gambetta was not the author of the Tunisian expedition, he was known not to have disapproved of it; he was known also as having chosen for Minister of War General Farre, who has become the most unpopular man in France. He had to accept the legacy of the last Administration, and in this legacy he found the Roustan trial. Rochefort, who is now the arch-enemy of Gambetta, had not much difficulty in discovering all the impurities of the Tunisian affair, and he threw them in the face of the Government. Public opinion in such matters is always sensational; it likes to feed on scandals. There are scandals enough in every Eastern court, and I may say in many European courts. If we saw behind the scenes at Constantinople, at Cairo, at many other places, what should we not see? The English generally wash this dirty consular and

diplomatic linen *en famille*—to use Napoleon's expression; the Tunisian linen was washed publicly, before a jury, under the eyes of an excitable population. The acquittal of M. Rochefort was considered a condemnation of the Tunisian expedition. This Tunisian business has been on the minds of all the Governors of Algeria for thirty years. It has always seemed to them that it was easier to defend Algeria with than without Tunis, which afforded a good frontier on the east, while the actual frontier was a long line which nothing could defend. Tunis has a good port, Biskra, and Algeria is lacking in good ports. All this was forgotten; everybody came to the conclusion that the expedition had been undertaken merely to satisfy the greed and the caprice of a few adventurers and their mistresses.

Gambetta's strong card, in arriving at power, was an active understanding with England, or at least the possibility of such an understanding: but if France pronounced herself against distant expeditions, what could he offer England? If France showed so much ill-will simply toward a short, bloodless expedition in Tunis, how could he hope to drag her, with England, further East, perhaps to the Valley of the Nile? England knew that she had a sympathetic friend in Gambetta, but began to doubt whether this sympathy would ever or could ever take a practical shape. The decision of the jury in the Roustan trial seemed to be an intimation in favor of non-intervention, of peace at any price. England had disapproved the Tunisian expedition—the letters of the *Times* correspondent in Tunis are full of spite against the French. Here was the result. The Tunis affair gave a cry to the enemies of the Government, at home as well as abroad. The active policy which was attributed to Gambetta became, almost at once, impaired. Still, he was in the *engrenage*—the Egyptian question had to be settled, and settled with England.

It has recently taken an acute form, since the military *pronunciamiento* of Arabi Bey. France and England have established in Egypt a sort of *condominium*, which has been successful in a financial way, but which seems to become politically a source of embarrassment. The former Khedive, who was hostile to all financial reform, was dismissed, but unfortunately the present Khedive has no prestige, no energy, and is looked upon as a mere tool of the Anglo-French Control. A brother of the late Khedive lives in Constantinople, and is perpetually intriguing against his nephew. He has found an ally in the Sultan, who has become the most active sovereign in Europe, and who puts his finger everywhere. The "National party" of Egypt is in reality the instrument of the combined passions of the Sultan and of Hamid Pasha; it has found a devoted instrument in Arabi Bey, a clever, pious, brave officer. The National party wishes to place the liberties of Egypt under the protection of the army, first, and of a Chamber of Notables, which is composed of the most incongruous elements. The increase of the army indicates in what direction things are going in Egypt: a movement against the Europeans, and especially against the English and French functionaries, may be expected at any moment; and the two Governments have come to a sort of agreement about a common action in Egypt in case a state of anarchy should arise there. The difficulties of this common action would be, however, manifest; it may be said, in one word, that France does not completely trust England, and that England does not completely trust France. The English feel, that with the actual form of government in France, and in the present temper of the French people, it would be exceedingly difficult for Gambetta to enter into a systematic intervention in Egypt, to make long

plans, and to guarantee their execution. The Tunisian affair is like a dead weight which embarrasses his movements. Even the creditors of Egypt are afraid; for Tunis, which had paid its debt in full for the past few years, has only paid it partly since France has taken it under her protection.

On the other hand, the French see very well that if we embark with the English for Egypt, we run the chance of being left there alone, as we once were in Mexico. If public opinion changes in England, a single vote can upset the administration, and there is an end to all active undertakings in the East. It would certainly be advantageous to France and to the French republic to have the alliance for any number of years of a power which has as much moral prestige as England; but since the war of 1871 the French nation has become very suspicious, and there is a general notion abroad that England always wishes to use the French, and will never do anything for them in the end. Without going so far as repeating the old phrases about "perfidie Albion," people cannot help seeing that England has many difficulties; that she may find it necessary to withdraw for a while from active politics; that she can always retire into her unassailable island. France, once engaged in the confusion of European affairs, has no retreat; she has neighbors, and powerful neighbors. She must be more guarded than ever.

Gambetta is too shrewd to lead his country with a "light heart" into inextricable difficulties; at the same time, he has given not only to France, but to the whole world, the impression that he will not be a passive politician; and this sentiment, which first contributed to his success, is beginning to turn a little against him. If you had heard the conversations which took place a few days ago, when he presented to the Chambers his plan of constitutional revision, you would have thought he was lost. This plan was looked upon as a means of escaping from office; it was a sort of provocation to the new Chamber, or, at any rate, was regarded as such. It seemed as if Gambetta, feeling the approach of some great danger, were trying to get out of office, and, as one paper said, to return to Saint Sebastian (where he remained during the Commune). This feeling, which is probably founded on an error, helped nevertheless to agitate the public mind; and finally, to the vague sentiment of insecurity which it created, were added the sensations caused by a financial crisis.

The financial world has for years been optimistic, and the possible excesses of speculation seemed to have no end. Stocks rose to unknown heights without any reference to dividends; a bank sprang up in every street, and these banks did nothing but sell new stocks. Now the end has come: the tide, after having reached its maximum, is turning back. The fever of speculation had seized all society, and all society will have its victims. The higher classes of France, turned out of active politics, consoled themselves with gambling; and many will remain on the battle-field, having lost more than their hazardous gains, their paternal fields and their ancestral manors. It is a sad experience, but it was not difficult for the wise and the prudent to see whether we were drifting. Such accidents are hardly worth mentioning, they are so common in all countries. I merely allude to the financial crisis as one of the elements of the present state of opinion. The horizon is dark on all sides; still, I hope that we shall weather the storm.

THE ROYAL RESCRIPT.

BERLIN, January 14.

"You will and you shall have a conflict with the Government." Such, during the last few

months, has been the standing menace of our officious and official papers, addressed to the Reichstag and every independent voter in the country; and now, as a New Year's gift, the old King surprises Germany and the world at large with a step toward naked absolutism. By this time the telegraph will have acquainted you with the contents of King William's decree of January 4, so that I need not dwell on the particulars. I will therefore confine myself to a few general remarks, instead of discussing each single controvertible sentence.

"The right of the King," says the decree, "to conduct the government and policy of Prussia according to his own discretion is limited by the Constitution, but not abolished. It is therefore inadmissible, and leads to the obscuration of the constitutional rights of the King, when their exercise is referred to as if they emanated from the Ministry, for the time being responsible for them, and not from the King himself. The Constitution of Prussia is the expression of the monarchical tradition of this country, whose development is based on the living and actual relations of its King to the people. It is the duty of the Ministry of the King to support his constitutional rights by protecting them against obscurity and doubts. These royal prerogatives must be considered as an essential part of the Constitution, and not only be conceded to the present King, but also to his successors. All civil officers (*Beamte*), whatever their private convictions may be, are bound to support, or at least refrain from actively opposing, the Government at election times."

The decree has, of course, created universal sensation, the more so as it was published at the head of the official paper, the *Reichs- und Staats-Anzeiger*—in other words, in a place which is usually reserved for personal manifestations of the royal pleasure. Such acts as a rule are not subject to public criticism, but the document alluded to bears the countersign of Bismarck, and has, therefore, the character of a constitutional act, which allows it to be criticised like any other official paper. It is addressed to the Prussian Cabinet, and owes its origin to the Chancellor, on whom a double responsibility thus falls. The first half of the ideas expressed in the decree have lately been developed by him, while the second half repeat the theories of Herr von Puttkamer, the Minister of the Interior, who on December 15th last tried to defend them in the Reichstag, and who, of course, merely expressed the views of his chief, without whose condescending permission none of his subordinates, including the Ministers of State, dare to utter a word.

In the opinion of the most impartial observers, there was no need to throw this bombshell into the midst of the general tranquillity and peace. Everybody, of whatever party, respects old William, and nobody would ever think of attacking any of his prerogatives. On the whole, there is no more loyal and monarchical people than the Prussians, and it is but a frivolous act to poison the King's mind by inventing dangers which do not exist. It served Bismarck's ends, however, to identify his policy and that of his satellites with the interests of the crown; to represent all his opponents as enemies of the royal government, and, for the future better control of the elections, to make all royal civil officers obedient tools of the ruling Minister, who devolves the responsibility of his acts on the crown, while on the contrary he alone should be responsible for them and shield the authority of the King. From the newspapers you cannot realize the sad and exasperated impression which this new manifestation of Bismarck's passionate resentment has produced on the overwhelming majority of the people. The editors publish very calm but at the same time resolute articles, public opinion everywhere condemns the wanton measure, and the several Liberal parties of the

Reichstag are still considering the best means to defeat the Chancellor's plans. An answer he will get very soon, and that a very plain and determined one. It would therefore be preposterous to judge from these scanty public manifestations that the Prussian people will quietly submit to this new outrage. They will take up the gauntlet and fight out the conflict. However cloudy and stormy our political horizon may become, I am sure it will not be Bismarck who will triumph in the end.

While last fall he and his supporters went into the election, pleading for the insurance of workingmen against accidents and old age by the state alone, now he has suddenly changed his views on that subject. The other day, in answering a Clerical interpellation about social reform, he freely confessed that such insurance, in order to be safe and salutary, must be effected by private corporations, and that a state monopoly in this respect would do more harm than good. His speech on that occasion might just as well have been made by a Manchester man. In his own interest, as well as in that of the country at large, it is to be hoped that the Chancellor will gradually return to his old economical creed. It almost seems as if his firm belief in the expediency and efficiency of his pet measures had been shaken. At all events, he cannot conceal from himself the fact that the blessings of the new protective tariff are far from being realized. He has implicated himself too far to be able graciously to withdraw from the whole line, but so much is certain, that none of his so-called grand measures will be submitted to the Reichstag at its present session.

A benevolent German organization, the Society for the Rescue of Shipwrecked Persons, has lately, for the purpose of raising some extraordinary means, published an album of autographs and drawings, called 'Aus Sturm und Noth,' to which some of our most prominent characters—poets, artists, scholars, and actors—have contributed a sentence, a sketch, or a poem. Almost all Germany is represented there, beginning with the old Emperor, a host of princes, Moltke, and other distinguished men, down to singers and actors. Bismarck at first refused to give his autograph, but toward the end of last year he quite unexpectedly sent a short Latin sentence, "Patria inserviendo consumor"—i. e., "Serving my country I consume myself." This motto is tinged with a somewhat mournful shade, and thoroughly characterizes the Chancellor's present position. If he had confined himself to his legitimate field as a diplomatist, and refrained from meddling with our domestic policy, and from making forced constitutional interpretations, he would have no reason to complain of the futility of his endeavors, for his greatness would gladly be acknowledged by the whole nation, and he would be more at peace with himself.

After a two days' excited debate, the motion of Herr Windthorst, the leader of the Ultramontane party, to repeal the law of May 4, 1874, was carried by 233 against 116 votes. This law prohibits clergymen who, for the infringement of state laws, have been removed by the Government, from exercising religious functions, and punishes their disobedience even with banishment. For the last seven years it has been a dead letter, and was thus of no practical value. The present large majority against it is due to its character as an exceptional enactment, and to the wavering attitude which the Government occupies in its conduct of ecclesiastical affairs. Members of all, and even of the most radical, parties voted for Herr Windthorst's motion, and for this reason its passage can, in my opinion, not be considered as a victory of the Centre. Nevertheless, the people at large look at it as a great Catholic triumph. Encouraged by this success,

the Ultramontane party in the Prussian Landtag will very soon fall on the Falk laws and try to repeal them all. The moment is very propitious for carrying out their scheme.

The Prussian Landtag was opened to-day, and will sit for about a week simultaneously with the Reichstag. Its present session will be full of general interest, as the Government must develop its policy toward the Church, and especially its negotiations with the Papal See. In his address from the throne the King to-day informed the House that he had succeeded in re-establishing the ordinary administration of several bishoprics, and that a bill for the reinforcement of the law of July 17, 1880, as far as it had become obsolete by its own limitation, would be submitted to the House. This law conferred discretionary powers on the Government for its negotiations with Rome and the bishops. "The friendly relations with the present chief of the Roman Church," the King concludes this passage, "enable us to satisfy our business wants by re-establishing our diplomatic intercourse with Rome. The means for doing so will be asked from you in the budget."

Besides the Roman question, the Landtag will have to decide upon the purchase of the rest of the private Prussian railroads by the Government. The experiment has thus far proved a very profitable one for the public exchequer, as it has yielded a net revenue of twenty-nine millions of marks. I believe that the measure will be carried through, but that some better guarantees than those given last year will be insisted upon for the legitimate appropriation of the railroad proceeds.

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THE ANGLO-FRENCH NOTE TO THE KHEDIVE.

ALEXANDRIA, January 17.

THE policy of the English and French in Egypt is gradually discovering itself, or, rather, is gradually being crystallized out of the state of solution in which vague diplomatic utterances have recently contained it. The note presented by the French and English Consuls-General on the 7th to the Khedive lays down certain lines of policy which comprise a distinct augury of future events. The interest attaching to this important document is not so much in the actual words used as in the revelation it includes of much which does not meet the eye. On its first reaching this city by telegram from Cairo it took everybody by surprise, and the immediate question asked was, not what it meant, but what new thing the Khedive and his advisers had been doing to call for such a decisive act of diplomatic intervention from without. The note of the Governments specifically says that the meeting of the Chamber of Notables has afforded a fresh occasion for the English and French Governments to exchange their views once more as to the policy to be pursued. It further says in so many words that the two Governments considered the maintenance of the Khedive on the throne as an indispensable guarantee for order and prosperity, in which France and England are equally interested. Lastly, it is announced in the note that the two Governments are closely united in the determination to use such efforts as may be required to obviate the causes which might menace the existing régime in Egypt either from within or from without. Since the presentation and publication of this note, it is reported that some personal explanations have been offered to the Khedive which might reduce its apparent significance, and the Khedive is also believed, in his reply, to have professed his satisfaction with the prospects of stability for the existing order of the country, especially in view of his constitutional relations with the new rep-

representative Assembly. Nevertheless, the better opinion here is that there was a real occasion for the note of the two Governments, which has gone so far beyond Lord Granville's celebrated despatch, in which he hardly adverted to the coöperation of France, and contemplated the intervention of either England or France as only a remote possibility in the case of an extreme emergency amounting to anarchy. This occasion is believed, in some well-informed quarters, to have been the disclosure of a long-rooted dissatisfaction on the part of the Khedive with the feeble support he was receiving from the Western powers. The result of this dissatisfaction was leading him to alternate between a reliance on Turkey and coqueting with what is called the National party. The Western Consuls-General here saw, that in the case of any further military pressure, which is every day on the cards, and of which symptoms are almost incessantly coming to the surface, the Khedive would be reduced to a position of formidable weakness. It seems likely enough that a communication to this effect was made simultaneously both to London and Paris, and the result has been that the two Governments have at last made resolute efforts to compose any existing differences, and to agree upon a united and energetic policy. This policy is expressed in the new note.

In some portions of Continental society here the new departure taken by France and England is looked upon with jealousy and suspicion. It is said that while the two Governments may have a claim to exercise control over the finances of Egypt in order to secure payment of their own bondholders, they have no different claim to intervene in the general government of the country from those which other European states have, such as, preëminently, Germany, Austria, and Italy. It is said further that, even though the newly-emphasized alliance should succeed in securing for Egypt all the political advantages which are supposed to be bound up with the continuance of Tewfik's rule, yet this is but a slender support on which to rest such weighty interests. England and France are agreed to-day, but they may differ to-morrow, or, what is still worse, one of them might, for sufficient consideration, surrender all its rights to the other, and Egypt might pass into the hands of some single European power before any coalition of other powers could be formed to vindicate the general interests.

For my own part, after reading carefully all the organs of public opinion which, in the depressed state of the press, afford still any clew to the mind of foreigners resident here, and after conversation with the best-informed persons, I think it probable that the account given above of the origin of the new note and of the altered and more decisive policy of France and England is the true one. On the other hand, I incline to believe that the criticism of this policy on the ground of its exclusiveness is both unreal and unreasonable. The commercial and political interests of England and France in Egypt, both as respects the Suez Canal and the relation of Egypt to other North African provinces, are tenfold those of all the other states of Europe put together. Nor is it fair to say that England and France have hitherto mainly, or even primarily, interfered in the government of Egypt for the sake of their own subjects who happen to be bondholders, and that their present action is of a new and extraordinarily aggressive kind. From the time which just preceded the deposition of Ismail, the English and French Governments have throughout acted as the agents and delegates of Europe. It was Germany which, by insisting that the judgments of the International Tribunals should be enforced by Ismail,

induced France and England to give the needful intimation to Turkey that Ismail must be deposed with as much saving of the prestige and prerogatives of the Sublime Porte as might be. The Control established by France and England was not primarily due to the claims of bondholders, but to the necessity of maintaining the stability of the new Khedive's throne. Ismail had fallen through his indebtedness and impecuniosity. The only chance of firmly establishing the rule of his successor was to provide for the liberation of the country from its pecuniary obligations, and to prevent all lavish and irresponsible extravagance in the future. Thus, the meaning of the Control is not that the bondholders should be paid, but that Egypt should be free. The object is the establishment of good order, regular and moderate taxation, security to property, and an economic employment of the public revenue in permanent works in this country, and not the satisfaction of exacting money-lenders elsewhere. So far as the debts were concerned, the main machinery introduced was not that of the Control, but of the European Commissioners appointed to manage the public estates mortgaged for the debts. Thus, in intervening in a special manner at the present crisis, England and France would be doing nothing more than what is perfectly consistent with the position they have always occupied, and been encouraged to occupy by other European states, from the beginning of the present Khedive's reign.

The French paper which succeeded to *L'Egypte*, being worked by the same company, and called the *Gazette des Tribunaux*, has just received two warnings, and is in imminent danger of being suppressed like its predecessor. The first sin was that of publishing from a French paper some news about the doings of Arabi Bey, which it is imputed the editor ought to have known was not true. The second sin was that of not printing the warning which rebuked the first sin in the right place in the paper, and for general hostility of tone to the Government. Many, if not all, of the European journals (though not the English journal, the *Egyptian Gazette*) receive large gratuities from Government, and it fares badly with those who are neither in the Government pay nor conform to Government doctrine. Nothing but the weakness of wine-and-water, with the wine chemically extracted, will save them.

The last news is that a whole caravan-full of pilgrims escaped from their quarantine and reached the banks of the Suez Canal. A fight occurred with the Egyptian soldiers, who seem to be serviceable for fighting pilgrims, and they were compelled to retrace their steps. A.

Correspondence.

THE POWERS OF A QUORUM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The question submitted by Mr. W. H. Whitmore in No. 865 of the *Nation* does not admit of the same solution in every State of the Union; for the proper solution thereof, in any particular State, depends upon the requirements of the Constitution of that State in relation to the passage of laws.

It is safe to say that it is settled that the general rule is, that a simple majority, but not a less number, of a quorum of a legislative body can legally pass a law, except where a different rule is prescribed by the Constitution of the State; and that where there is a constitutional requirement of a two-thirds or a three-fourths vote in the affirmative in order to pass a law,

said requirement is satisfied when it appears that two-thirds or three-fourths of a quorum have voted in its favor, unless the language of the Constitution plainly shows that such a proportion of all the members elected is intended. (As authorities upon the above, see 2 Mich. Rep., p. 287; 4 Mo. Rep., p. 303; and Cooley's 'Constitutional Limitations,' p. 171.)

Now, when we examine the fundamental laws of the several States, we find that in most of them, in order to adopt legally either all laws or all laws upon some specified subjects, it is necessary that said laws shall be affirmatively voted for by a majority or some other prescribed greater proportion of all the members elected or of the entire representation; in which cases all members of the Legislature, whether present or not, must be taken into account in determining whether or not a bill has received a constitutional majority. (See 22 Cal. Rep., p. 314.)

As throwing an additional ray of light upon the subject, I quote one of the provisions of the Constitution of this State in relation to the passage of laws, being section 13 of article 2, and which reads as follows: "A majority of all the members elected to each house voting in the affirmative, shall be necessary to pass any bill or joint resolution." Again, in this State, under the requirements of three general acts in relation to cities of the three general classes, "No ordinance" of any city "shall be valid unless a majority of all the members elect of the Council vote in favor thereof."

Respectfully,
THOS. W. HEATLEY.
TROY, KANSAS, January 30, 1882.

DANIEL DEFOE AND THE "REDEMPTIONERS" IN MARYLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The notice of Johnston's 'History of Cecil County,' in the last issue of the *Nation*, in which it is stated that descendants of Daniel Defoe's niece, who came into Maryland as a "redemptioner," are still living near Nottingham, Md., calls to mind the description of Maryland life contained in 'The Life of Colonel Jack,' one of Defoe's less known works.

'Colonel Jack' was published in 1722. In Johnston's 'History' it is said that Elizabeth, daughter of Defoe's sister, Elizabeth Maxwell, was brought into Maryland in 1718, and married to her owner's son in 1725, and that she did not communicate with her friends in England until after her marriage. The graphic description of Colonel Jack's life as a "redemptioner" in Maryland, however, suggests the idea that Defoe's niece may have been in correspondence with her uncle before the date of her marriage, and that he may have derived from her the information which he uses in his story. Be that as it may, Defoe seems to have been well informed in regard to "redemptioners" and their treatment in Maryland, and his account of their position and prospects may be accepted as largely founded upon fact.

Colonel Jack, with several companions, having deserted from a Scottish regiment, seeks passage from Newcastle to London on a collier. They get drunk on liquor supplied them by a kidnapper, whom they suppose to be the captain of the vessel which is to take them to London, and on becoming sober find themselves at sea, bound for America, whither they are carried notwithstanding their remonstrances, and delivered to planters in Maryland to serve a term of years. Jack's faithfulness causes him, after a time, to be made overseer on one of his master's farms. He so pleases his master, who is represented as a very humane man, by his success in managing the negro slaves without the constant use of the lash, that he obtains his liberty and "the coun-

try bountiful—that is to say, a quantity of land to begin and plant for himself." He ultimately becomes a rich planter, owning several plantations and many slaves of his own.

This fiction is made the vehicle for very minute descriptions of the "redemptioners" and slaves in Maryland and their condition, which are no doubt in many respects true to nature. Defoe's conclusions are especially interesting when we learn that his own niece's experience was an example of their truth:

"The meanest and most despicable creature, after his time of servitude is expired, if he will but apply himself with diligence and industry to the business of the country, is sure (life and health supposed) both of living well and growing rich. As this is a foundation which the most unfortunate wretch alive is entitled to, a transported felon is, in my opinion, a much happier man than the most prosperous untaken thief in the nation. Nor are those poor young people so much in the wrong as some imagine them to be, that go voluntarily over to those countries, and, in order to get themselves carried over and placed there, freely bind themselves there, especially if the persons into whose hands they fall do anything honestly by them."

B. SOLLERS.

BALTIMORE, MD.

Notes.

THE 'Q. P. Index Annual for 1881,' just issued at Bangor, Maine, is a guide to the contents of the *Living Age*, *Eclectic International Review*, *Popular Science Monthly*, *Century*, *Harper's*, *Lippincott's*, *Atlantic*, and *Nation*. The simple device by which all these periodicals are distinguished from each other is prefixing the volume to the page referred to, since, as it happens, the volume numbers in no case coincide. The key to them is repeated at the foot of each page, but why was not the more intricate symbolism of ♡ + ♢, etc., likewise explained continuously, in the blank space between the columns? It is needless to point out what a boon this work is to the frequenter of any library, as well as to the possessors of the above magazines and journal. —The Messrs. Harper, by the way, announce that after July next they mean to destroy the plates of their *Mugazine*, *Weekly*, and *Bazar*, prior to 1878, so that orders for back numbers and volumes must be sent in before June 30. Among new works in press they enumerate the 'Law of Stock Brokers and Stock Exchanges,' by John R. Dos Passos; 'Old Greek Education,' by J. P. Mahaffy; and 'Atlantis, the Antediluvian World,' by Ignatius Donnelly. —The 'Life of James Mill' and the 'Life of John Stuart Mill,' both by Professor Alexander Bain, are to be published in this country by Henry Holt & Co., under an arrangement with the author. —J. B. Lippincott & Co. have become the sole publishers of Bouvier's 'Law Dictionary' and 'Institutes.' —The MS. of 'A Tour in Ireland in 1849,' by Thomas Carlyle, has just turned up and will be issued serially in the *Century Magazine*. —Fords, Howard & Hulbert have in press 'John Eax,' by Judge Tourgee. —'Dorothy,' an English story in elegiac verse; and 'School Sermons,' by Dr. William Everett, of the Adams Academy, at Quincy, Mass., will be published immediately by Roberts Bros. —Lee & Shepard have brought out in good style an English version of Alphonse Daudet's 'Numa Roumestan,' with the original illustrations. The translator is Miss Virginia Champlin, whose success is noticeable in spite of a few inaccuracies, attributable either to haste or to the freedom which great familiarity with the French—not to say a proper theory of translation—has made warrantable. —'Ecclesia Anglicana, a History of the Church

of Christ in England from the Earliest to the Present Times,' by Arthur Charles Jennings, M. A.; 'Modern Heroes of the Mission Field'; and 'Questions that Trouble Beginners,' by the Rev. George W. Shinn, are to be shortly issued by T. Whittaker. —In the *American Architect* for January 21 will be found Mr. John H. B. Latrobe's interesting address on the building of the Capitol at Washington (in which the writer's father played so important a part), delivered last November before the American Institute of Architects. This journal, by the way, shows marks of permanent prosperity by the great increase in its minor illustrations, particularly initial letters embodying architectural motives. —Bulletin No. 2 for 1881 of the American Geographical Society contains Commander Gorringe's unpretentious account of his suggestive cruise in the *Gettysburg* while sounding the northern coast of Africa, and a paper, which Mr. Blaine might read with profit, on "Chili—its Geography, People, and Institutions," by James Douglass, Jr. —In the *Publishers' Weekly* a review of the books of 1881 states that the number composed by American writers is greatly in excess of all previous years. —We learn from the London *Bookseller* that Mr. D. C. Thompson, of the staff of the London *Art Journal*, will issue by subscription a quarto illustrated volume on 'The Life and Works of Thomas Bewick, Wood Engraver,' of which the edition will be limited to 250 small-paper and seventy-five large-paper copies, at one and two guineas respectively. It will contain "a complete critical estimate of his engravings, both on copper and on wood." —"The Library Journal is at last self-supporting," is the publisher's pleasing announcement in the December number. He does not deny, however, that it is not yet highly profitable. —*Monthly Notes* (Trübner) for January 16 has an important paper by Mr. John Ballinger, of the Borough Free Library, Doncaster, who tells how, by means of a circular, he greatly enlarged the patronage of the institution, which had been working far below its capacity. —Strong petitions for the erection by the State of a special building for the Historical Society are now before the Legislature of Wisconsin. —The literary activity which characterizes the officers of some of the Government observatories of Europe is worthy of note. The recent report of Director Struve, of the Russian observatory at Pulkova (*Jahresbericht am 20 May, 1881, dem Comité der Nicolai-Hauptsternwarte*), gives by title fourteen papers published during the year by eight of the attachés of the observatory. These papers, only two of which are written in the Russian language, are published partly through the Kaiserliche Akademie der Wissenschaften, the observatory itself, the Russian Geographical Society, and the Astronomische Gesellschaft, of Leipzig. —In *Polybiblion* for January, M. Henri Corder announces that he has in press a bibliography of Beaumarchais. —One of the latest issues of the excellent *Universal-Bibliothek* of Philip Reclam, Leipzig, is Kant's little essay 'Zum ewigen Frieden.' The editor is Karl Kehrbach, who some time ago carefully edited for the same cheap series the three *Kritiks* of Kant. The price is 30 pfennigs.

—By an unlucky and regrettable error, in our recent review of Ropes's 'Army under Pope,' (page 84, column 3), the statement occurred that "The campaign was lost because Porter withdrew McDowell and Sigel from the vicinity of Thoroughfare Gap." Of course Pope should have been read.

—Peter Cunningham's octavo edition of Goldsmith (4 vols., 1854), recently reprinted in attractive form by the Harpers, will have especial

value for some of its readers in the textual corrections which have accrued from the collation of earlier editions. Not the least of the pleasure to be had from a good writer is the study of the sources, whether in his temperament or in his art, from which he derives his effects. The temperament, of course, appears in any text, but the literary art is best shown by *variorum* readings such as those given in the present edition. As in the case of other classic authors whose *labor lime* is recorded, it clearly appears that laborious writing must go to make good reading. Even in musical composition, which one might suppose to be the most spontaneous form of art-expression, the same law holds good. The score of a Beethoven symphony preserved in the Berlin Museum (the Seventh, if we remember correctly) is a mass of the most intricate and painstaking corrections. Byron corrected laboriously, and ought to have corrected more than he did. But aside from any question of form, it would not perhaps be easy to name an English author of the eighteenth century whose writings retain a more certain charm than Goldsmith's. They will long attract us by their urbanity and intellectual hospitality—traits that were none too frequent among the contemporaries of Goldsmith, nor, for that matter, even among the contemporaries of Carlyle, Freeman, and Ruskin; and the present reprint is the most accessible as well as the best edition.

—Food and clothing can be supplied without difficulty to a city of a million inhabitants. How to remove the refuse of a village of a thousand is not so well understood. Each successive publication on sanitary matters shows that there is little uniformity in practice, even in the different towns of the same country, upon the question of the scavenger's duties. Mr. Percy Boulnois, the city surveyor of Exeter, finds that in ninety English towns from which he received information the average annual cost of removing house refuse and of street cleaning is about ten pence per head; but the figure varies with different places from one halfpenny to three shillings and sixpence. A shilling per head per annum is sufficient, according to Mr. Boulnois's estimates, to pay for the proper cleansing of cities and towns. How this should be done he points out in his little book on the subject ('Dirty Dustbins,' etc. London and New York: Spon. 1881). The collection and disposal of house refuse form his chief subject, the methods practised in the city of Manchester being especially effective. The Health Committee of that city deals weekly with about 3,000 tons of refuse material, of which something over nine-tenths are ashes and cinders. The rest is classified as follows: Paper, 1 ton; dead animals, 2 tons; rags, 3 tons; stable-manure, 17 tons; tin cans, old tin, and iron, 33 tons; refuse from slaughter-houses and fish-shops, 60 tons; broken pots, bottles, and glasses, 80 tons; vegetable refuse, door-mats, floor-cloths, and old straw mattresses, 100 tons. The rubbish is sifted by steam-power; the dry, combustible refuse is burned, and the mineral refuse is fused, and its residue converted into good mortar. A third process utilizes a considerable portion of the offal as a fertilizer. In our climate the treatment of the snowfall is one of the most serious questions of town-cleansing. Mr. Boulnois finds the most perfect organization for the removal of snow not in the north, nor even in Paris, but in the city of Milan. For this purpose the city is divided into 112 districts, each one let out by annual contract; but the same contractors generally apply year after year. They belong to trades that are interrupted by the winter, as masons and quarrymen. Four engineers supervise the work, each in his appointed quarter of the city. The amount of each snowfall is

promptly ascertained, and is made the basis of the pay. It is measured by means of stone posts, capped with level slabs of stone, and placed in suitable open spaces. "As soon as it stops snowing, or two or three times during a storm of several hours, the depth of snow caught on the slabs is measured by the engineer, in the presence of two of the contractors in his section." The city finds the implements used; they are worth about \$8,000. The number of men engaged after a snowfall is from 2,000 to 3,000. The expense varies with the severity of the season. During the winter of 1874-75 the snowfall was 40½ inches, cleared away at a cost of \$42,000; in 1877-78 it was only 5½ inches, cleared for \$5,200. In 1879-80 the cost averaged \$1,000 per inch of snowfall within the walls, and \$310 per inch without, equivalent to only about two cents per cubic yard. "Payment," adds Mr. Boulnois, "is made only for work effectually done"—a feature of city government which is, we dare say, more distinctively Italian than American.

The fire in Park Row suggests anew the standing danger of an extended conflagration in the business portion of the city. Our easy system of fire insurance encourages fires by taking away the motive to build solidly. Why should the proprietor go to the expense of iron floor-beams and rafters when a company stands ready to pay his losses in case of a conflagration—when, as in the case of the old *World* building, even if the insurance falls short, the destruction is a pecuniary gain to an owner anxious to enlarge or rebuild? As a matter of fact the greater part of our fine buildings are full of wooden floor-beams and rafters which prove to be mere kindling-wood, as in Chicago and Boston, under the heat of an intense conflagration. They are fire-proof only until the breaking out of the fire. It may be pointed out that in our highly inflammable cities the construction of a really fire-proof building is quite another and a considerably more difficult thing than it is in cities in which wood scarcely enters into the structure of the house. In the Chicago and Boston fires even marble and granite walls crumbled under the fierce heat; brick was the only material that withstood it. In what city of southern Europe could a fire have raged so fiercely as to destroy marble and granite walls? It is only in cities where wood enters largely into the construction that non-inflammable materials are melted or crumpled by the heat. A building law that should forbid the use of wood for floor-beams and rafters would render lower rates of fire insurance possible by greatly reducing the number of fires, and it would also make the construction of a really fire-proof building easier and cheaper than it now is in inflammable cities. Even a poor building-stone does not crumble except under excessive heat; and the iron work which gives way in a great fire even more rapidly than a wooden beam is consumed would thus be rehabilitated as a fire-proof material. French fire-insurance companies, or some of them, provide that, while they make good other losses by fire, they shall pay no insurance upon the houses in which the fire originates. It will be seen that this provision gives the proprietor the liveliest interest in the care of his own building. Were a similar contract possible here, it would materially reduce the great destruction of property by conflagrations—a loss which is computed at about \$800,000 per day for the United States, exclusive of the great cost of fire insurance and of fire companies. It would seem as if "practical reform" in the directions we have just indicated was quite as desirable as in many others about which more talk is made.

Census Bulletin No. 273, by Prof. R. Punnett, gives a summary of the production of

bituminous coal in the United States during the census year. Bituminous coal, in which term is included all the softer varieties, such as cannel coal, lignite, etc., is produced in twenty-four of the States and Territories. Out of a possible output of 76,155,970 tons, the mines produced during the year 42,417,764 tons. That is, the production was about fifty-six per cent. of what could have been taken out, with the same degree of development, if the state of the market had warranted it. The value of the product of the year at the mines was \$53,006,073, or \$1.25 per ton. The total capital invested is reported at \$101,996,967, and the number of employees at 99,916. The area of coal land attached or belonging to the collieries is given as 413,643 acres, besides 56,101 acres, which are reported as "worked out." It should be observed that the latter item does not include the lands partially worked, or even those from which the seams of workable thickness have been taken, in case there are other seams which it is not at present profitable to work. Of the States producing bituminous coal, Pennsylvania of course takes the lead, its yield being more than forty-two per cent. of the whole product. The next are Illinois and Ohio, with fourteen and four-tenths and fourteen per cent. respectively. Following these, in the order named, are Maryland, West Virginia, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, and so forth, the States above named producing nearly nine-tenths of the entire product of the country.

It is several years since we had the pleasure of praising M. Ernest Legouvé's admirable little essay on the art of reading. In this time 'L'Art de la Lecture' has reached its twenty-ninth edition in France, and it has been twice translated into English in America. Now M. Legouvé has written a sort of sequel to it, 'La Lecture en Action,' which is inferior in interest and instructiveness only to its predecessor. It appears from the first chapter that M. Hetzel, his publisher and the publisher also of the excellent *Magasin d'Éducation et de Récréation*, of which—under the assumed name of P. J. Stahl—he is one of the editors, asked M. Legouvé if he could not supplement and support the theory of his 'Art de la Lecture' by a series of practical examples, showing just how a good selection of pieces ought to be read, and also why they ought to be read in that way. This is exactly what M. Legouvé has done. He begins by showing that the style of reading should differ with the style of the writing read, and should be appropriate to it. Taking the fable of the Cat and the Rats, as told by Aesop, Phaedrus, and Lafontaine, he explains that the first is to be read clearly, correctly, and with precision; the second with *finesse* and relief; and the third with color and sentiment. Thus we have a literary criticism preceding a lesson in reading and serving as its basis. This, of course, is the only proper plan; and we wish there were in English a Reader in which it was as skilfully carried out as here, and with as much variety. In the course of his 362 pages M. Legouvé brings forward the rules of reading, one by one, and illustrates their application by choice selections from the chief poets and prose-writers of France—Molière, Racine, Béranger, Théophile Gautier, Victor Hugo, in verse; and Fénelon, Voltaire, La Bruyère, Pascal, and Bossuet in prose. He gives us not only a course of reading, but, in miniature, a course of French literature, which has much of the lightness and ease of a comedy. Moreover, from his experience as a writer for the stage and from his association with actors, M. Legouvé has gained a store of anecdote, from which he draws freely to point a moral. His work is, indeed, what an American book once

declared itself to be: "Reading without Tears." It can be recommended most cordially.

In the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for January 15th, M. Maxime du Camp prints a chapter of literary reminiscences dating more than thirty years back, and containing interesting notices of Théophile Gautier and Gustave Flaubert. In conjunction with the former and with Arsène Houssaye, M. du Camp revived in October, 1851, the defunct monthly *Revue de Paris*, and continued its publication till January, 1858. He sums up its career by saying that financially it was something of a load; as literature, if not of great importance, it had some utility; and if it had served no other purpose than to introduce Baudelaire, Flaubert, and Eugène Fromentin to the public it was worthy of the sacrifices which it demanded. Flaubert was very undecided about publishing anything, and after much urging on the part of his friends, concluded to take the advice of Théophile Gautier, who was thirteen or fourteen years the senior of the others. Gautier listened with a smile while Flaubert developed his theories of art and the duty of the artist, and replied:

"I know all about that. Everybody goes through that phase, just as children have the measles. When I used to live with Arsène Houssaye, Camille Rogier, and Gérard de Nerval we had just such ideas. I know what it is to write *chefs d'œuvre*; I wrote 'La Comédie de la Mort'; I gave away two volumes of prose in order to have my verses published, of which seventy-five copies were sold. Everybody can write *chefs d'œuvre* if he will only believe in them. In this matter, as in everything else, it is only by faith that one is saved. You believe in the mission of the writer, in the priesthood of the poet, in the divinity of art. Oh! Flaubert, you are an innocent. The writer sells copy just as the draper sells kerchiefs; the only trouble is that calico brings more than manuscript. All the sculpture of Greece is contained in the Venus of Milo; just so all French prose and poetry can be reduced to a single volume; if that volume is saved, the literary art of France is saved. Can you add a line to that volume? I don't know, you don't know, nobody knows; perhaps in two hundred years somebody will know. To keep back manuscripts is folly; after finishing a book the next thing is to sell it as well as you can and publish it. That's all."

Flaubert disregarded this advice. He locked up his 'Temptation of St. Anthony,' which he had just written, and began 'Madame Bovary,' which was published in the *Revue de Paris* in 1857, and was prosecuted as an offence against the public morals.

M. du Camp warns his readers not to take Gautier more seriously than Flaubert took him. Gautier had as elevated views of art as any one could, and if at times he indulged in cynical utterances, it was when he had one of his periods of discouragement. Harassed by creditors, and persecuted by his family, he led the traditional Grub Street existence. The task of furnishing the weekly dramatic review of the *Presse* became unbearably irksome to him, but as he derived his chief revenue from it he could not afford to get rid of it. He found a substitute, however, in Louis de Cormenin, who for three years wrote Gautier's *feuilletons* without anybody's suspecting it. The respite which he gained by this arrangement enabled Gautier to write his 'Italia,' which was composed in the printing-office without a single book of reference or document of any kind. His memory was wonderful; he could rely on it with a confidence which was never betrayed. He never corrected or revised a phrase; as soon as he had written ten lines they were set up in type, and so on to the end of the chapter or article. When the proofs were brought to Gautier he marked the errors by a scratch of his nail. He once said: "Schiller, in order to set his fancy working, inhaled the odor of rotten apples; I believe I could not write without smelling the stench of printers' ink."

One morning Gautier came rushing into the apartments of Du Camp, and informed him that he had narrowly escaped arrest for refusing to perform his duties as a member of the National Guard. His reason for refusing would find a ready echo in the bosom of Oscar Wilde. "I have no right," he said, "to disguise the beauty of my figure by clothing it in a ridiculous uniform. In 1832 I was about to become a St. Simonian, but when I learned that I should have to wear white trousers, a red waistcoat, and a blue coat, I recoiled with horror, and spontaneously renounced the new worship. I would rather perish in a dungeon than prove recreant to my principles." Having had a first taste of the "dungeon," however, he was tempted to yield to necessity, and repaired to the meeting of his company in the following costume of his own devising: Gray trousers, a yellow vest adorned with blue flowers, and a green swallow-tailed coat with gilt buttons. It is easy to imagine the indignation of the captain and the amusement of the company.

—In speaking of the days immediately preceding the *Coup d'Etat* of December 2, M. du Camp says that it was a sort of steeple-chase between the President and the Assembly which of the two rival powers should get ahead and rid itself of the other by committing some illegal and violent act. Nobody knew when the blow would fall, or by which side it would be dealt, but everybody confidently expected it. In one and the same day M. du Camp was accosted by one person, who said: "Have you heard? Tomorrow is the day; the President is going to sleep at Vincennes; everything is in readiness; the army is with the representatives; it is time to finish the traitor"; and an hour later by another, who said: "Have you heard? Tomorrow is the day; the Assembly will be dispersed by force; everything is in readiness; the army is with the Prince; it is time to finish the babbler."

—J. Mayer & Co., of Munich, have secured a royal patent on an invention which promises greatly to improve our pianofortes. A series of tuning forks are freely suspended over the three highest octaves of the piano, each fork having the exact pitch of the string over which it is suspended. The vibrations of the string are communicated to the fork, which in turn reacts on the string, whereby a full and sustained tone is secured, in strong contrast to the short and dry tones of the present pianos. The improved quality of the higher notes also improves the volume of the lower ones, since several of these high notes are always heard as overtones whenever one of the lower notes is struck. In this manner the difficult problem of equalizing the strength and fulness of the different octaves will probably be solved at last.

—At the fourth concert of the New York Symphony Society on Saturday evening three compositions only were played, each of which is eminently characteristic of its author—Mozart's G minor Symphony, Spohr's Concerto in A for violin and orchestra (*in Form einer Gesangsscene*), and Rubinstein's popular "Ocean" Symphony. The G minor Symphony is one of the three or four of Mozart's forty-one works of that class which still boast of a large number of admirers; but it cannot be denied that its colors, too, are rapidly fading away. To realize what immense progress music has made since the day when it was written, one need but compare it with the "Ocean" Symphony. In the older work the ideas are few and superficial, the forms narrow and artificial, and the spirit too naively happy to suit this pessimistic age. In the "Ocean" Symphony the themes and harmonies are of stirring originality

and depth, the form broad and unconstrained, and the development of the musical plot, so to say, not so transparent and self-evident as to neutralize all emotion in the listener's breast. From a relative point of view it would be rash to claim such a complete superiority of Rubinstein's over Mozart's symphony. To the generation for which the latter was written its form and contents may have seemed as novel and interesting as the form and contents of Rubinstein's work seem to us; but music as a mode of amusement must not be judged from a relative, but from an absolute point of view. For many of the features which make Rubinstein's symphony the greater work its author is not personally responsible. They are the product and invention of many minds and only assimilated by him. But the features are there, nevertheless, and that is the point to be considered. Mr. Damrosch's orchestra played both these compositions equally well. The free and spontaneous performance of the "Ocean" Symphony—or the five movements of it which were played—clearly revealed the fact that the majority of the musicians have played it under Rubinstein's own inspiring direction. In the Spohr concerto the violin part was played by Master Michael Banner, a pupil of the Cincinnati College of Music, only thirteen years of age. For various reasons we are opposed to the parading in the concert hall of the powers of such youthful prodigies. Appeal is thereby made to emotions and interests not purely musical on the part of the audience, and the boy himself suffers almost invariably from this hothouse method of forcing his talents. The pleasure given by Mr. Banner's playing, however, was so genuine that these objections, for once, were quite driven to the background. His full tone and skilful bowing reflect as much credit on his teachers as the purity of his intonation and intelligence of conception do on his inborn talent. While the manly force and breadth of execution which can only come with age were of course absent in the concerto, there was evident everywhere a maturity of feeling which fully justified the applause bestowed on him. The manner, however, in which this applause was bestowed showed a strange want of intelligence on the part of a certain proportion of the audience. Surely it ought not to be necessary to remind a Steinway Hall audience that a concerto is not an Italian opera, or, in other words, that the orchestral part in a concerto is just as important as the solo part, and should not be spoiled by applause. An English critic congratulated London musicians the other day on the fact that an end was put some time ago to the bad habit of applauding every solo in a concerto and drowning the *tutti* in noise. New York should not be behind London in matters musical.

COBDEN.—II.

The Life of Richard Cobden. By John Morley. London: Chapman & Hall; Boston: Roberts Bros.

COBDEN possessed the rare virtues and shared the special defects which have at all times been found in religious reformers. Of his single-minded zeal for his cause it is hardly necessary to say much, for it is apparent in every word that he spoke and in every act which he did. He was a man of loving and lovable nature; he was tenderly attached to friends and family. But from the moment that he engaged in public affairs, his whole soul was given up to the service of the nation. He pushed aside the claims of business; he neglected (perhaps unduly neglected) his private interests for the public concern. When distracted with the fear of ruin, he

bore up with a brave heart for the sake of "the cause." There are few things more touching in biography than the account given, with admirable tact and all due reticence, by Mr. Morley of Cobden's mercantile distress at the very crisis of his political triumph. One thing, and one thing only, in the free-trader's life touches even a deeper chord of human sympathy. Of the death of his son, and all that it meant and involved, one hardly likes even now to speak in what must necessarily be the cold language of writings intended for the public eye. Poignant sorrows, even when necessarily disclosed to the world, have still a character of privacy. Those who wish to understand a side of Cobden's character without which our idea would be most incomplete, should turn to the chapter on the "Death of his Son," in which Mr. Morley displays all the best talents of a biographer in revealing, and still more in not revealing, the tragic aspect of his hero's life; for a career crowned with ample success was, like other lives dedicated to public service, not a career of any thing like unalloyed happiness.

"In the last year of Cobden's life, as he and Mrs. Cobden were coming up to London from their home in the country, Mrs. Cobden said to him: 'I sometimes think that, after all the good work that you have done, and in spite of fame and great position, it would have been better for us both if, after you and I married, we had gone to settle in the backwoods of Canada.' And Cobden could only say, after looking for a moment or two with a gaze of mournful preoccupation through the window of the carriage, that he was not sure that what she said was not too true."

Just after the repeal of the corn-laws, Cobden thus writes to a friend:

"I am going into the wilderness to pray for a return of the taste I once possessed for natural and simple, quiet life. Here I am, in one day from Manchester, to the loveliest valley out of paradise. Ten years ago, before I was an agitator, I spent a day or two in this house. Comparing my sensations now with those I then experienced, I feel how much I have lost in winning public fame. The rough tempest has spoilt me for the quiet haven; I fear I shall never be able to cast anchor again. It seems as if some mercurial hand were on my brain, or I was possessed by an unquiet fiend urging me forward in spite of myself."

These passages tell their own tale. Cobden was assuredly not that "happy man" for whom sages have been searching in vain since the days of Solon and Croesus. But it were a mistake to fancy that he was a person whom any one could call unhappy. He enjoyed in the fullest measure that buoyancy of spirit, that determined and excessive hopefulness, which was never wanting in any successful reformer. Both from theory and from disposition he was an optimist. The doctrines of free trade rest on the assumption that when men are left free to act in accordance with their obvious interests and their natural dispositions, their conduct will tend to the benefit of the whole of mankind; and Cobden adopted this axiom of his school as the guide not only of his public life but of his private feelings. His creed was himself. It is hardly possible to say whether he adopted his social and economical views because he was by nature an optimist, or whether his optimism, manifest no less in his absurd over-estimate of so-called "moral force" than in his unsatisfactory pecuniary investments, was the result of a philosophy of life based on the teaching of George Combe and confirmed by acquaintance with the phenomena of trade. Temperament was the source of opinion, and the acquired set of opinion confirmed the bias of temperament. In any case, sanguine buoyancy of nature was one of Cobden's special endowments. To hope all things goes a great way toward obtaining all things.

In addition to singleness of purpose and hopefulness of purpose, the preacher of free trade

displayed in all his public action singular capacity for the management of business. This, it will be thought, is a secular virtue, foreign altogether to the qualities to be found among successful religious teachers. But those who think thus take a mistaken view of the qualities generally to be found in men who have organized moral movements. Reformers such as Luther, Calvin, Knox, Wesley, and a score more whose names would occur to any one well versed in ecclesiastical history, were assuredly enthusiasts; but any one who studies their lives will soon perceive that they were persons of great capacity in the management of affairs. Nor is there anything in this to excite surprise. Genius is not a special talent. It is a power which may be turned in any direction. The innovator of genius can bring the force of his nature to bear on all which interests him. He may not feel much interest in the matters which occupy the attention of common men, but in so far as these matters affect his cause they have for him an intense interest. It is little likely that a reformer will make his own fortune, but it is likely that he will bring to the promotion of his reforms the powers and even the talents by which he might have made himself the richest of the servants of Mammon. That Cobden enriched the country by millions at the moment when he was likely to become bankrupt for want of thousands, is one of those idle paradoxes which attract popular imagination and mislead popular judgment. The paradox, such as it is, scarcely deserves the explanation, ingenious and true though it be, provided by Mr. Morley. Cobden gave the keenest attention to the conduct of the Anti-Corn-Law League. He could not at the same time pay any careful attention to the business of his own firm. The League grew and prospered; the firm became all but insolvent. The only point which concerns critics is to avoid the mistake of fancying that the man who managed with success the complicated affairs of the League had not the gifts of a first-rate man of business.

Another quality which in the case of Cobden, as of many other reformers, specially fitted the man for his work was the audacity of ignorance. Nature had given Cobden an active and inquiring intellect. His own energy had procured for him an education which was, like most things that a person procures for himself, of far more value than the training to be purchased at schools and universities. But it is no discredit to Cobden to say plainly that, if he knew many things of practical importance which were not understood by Palmerston or Russell, he lacked the width of knowledge which can only be acquired by complete training. Nor is there any absurdity in maintaining that the defects of Cobden's education contributed greatly to the success of Cobden's political career. He never tasted the most dangerous knowledge of all kinds of knowledge—the knowledge of his own ignorance. On the other hand, the truths which he did know, being acquired by his own efforts, had a force, a reality, a vividness, a meaning to him which no facts ever have to a student who has learned them at second hand from the mouth of others. Of the absolute truth of the principles which he had worked out more or less for himself, Cobden never doubted. Every additional fact which told in their favor was, as the saying goes, "grist to his mill"; and every fact or supposed fact which he picked up he at once adduced in support of foregone conclusions. Cobden, said a friend, always spoke "at the top of his knowledge." The expression which Mr. Morley interprets as the language of simple eulogy may strike others as a happy specimen of the sarcasms proper to candid friendship. If Cobden had not spoken "at the top of his know-

ledge"—or, in other words, talked with authority of matters which he did not understand—he would never have afforded sport to the Philistines by his reference to the "historical books of Thucydides." But had elaborate intellectual cultivation made it impossible for a man so honest to speak with assurance on the basis of inadequate knowledge, he might, it is likely enough, have never spoken at all truths which required to be driven home to the understandings of the English people. Honest audacity, even if aided by ignorance, is audacity still, and has all the influence which rightly falls to every kind of bravery. It were pedantry to regret that Cobden spoke "at the top of his knowledge" and sometimes a little beyond it. One may easily pardon defects in a sermon if the preacher vividly enforces the neglected truths of a good text.

No reformer can, from the nature of things, be a fair critic of the "world" which it is his mission to convert, and Cobden suffered from the moral disabilities inherent in his position. He was by nature fair and candid. When brought face to face, for example, with education at Oxford, he could recognize the fact that to do well in the University examinations required a greater effort than he and his friends (who no doubt conceived all the inhabitants of the colleges to be soaked in "port wine and prejudice") had believed. He was one also who, on grounds both of principle and of expediency, tried to use moderate language. But, for all this, he was in his whole attitude toward such a man as Palmerston constantly unjust. Palmerston was, both in his vices and in his virtues, the very incarnation of the man of the world; and Cobden, if he did not hate Palmerston himself, assuredly did detest the whole spirit of which Palmerston was the embodiment. For Lord Russell he could feel a cold respect. For Peel he entertained, even in the midst of conflict, that kind of antipathy which may very easily be turned to admiration. With Gladstone he probably felt a good deal of sympathy. For Palmerston, and all that pertained to Palmerston, he never had a good word, and, with creditable sagacity and firmness, declined to make part, under any circumstances whatever, of a Palmerstonian Cabinet. To settle the rights of the long controversy between him and the representative of a spirited foreign policy is not the purpose of this article. Mr. Morley is, unconsciously no doubt, unfair in his strictures on Palmerston. Even were every censure which he passes on a very remarkable and patriotic statesman sound, we should still complain that Mr. Morley omits to lay any emphasis whatever on the points of Palmerston's policy in which he was as much in the right as the Manchester school were in the wrong. All that need here be noted is, that Cobden's quarrel with Palmerston was in its essentials the old and never-ending feud between the reformer and the man of the world, between the innovator who tries to change the principles of society, and the man who takes life as it is. The controversy is one which, in one form or another, will endure for ever. Each party seems to himself and his followers to be exclusively in the right. A final judgment on the real issues between them can be pronounced by history alone; and even this judgment will not be really conclusive, since the point in dispute is the worth of different views of life—one might almost say of different virtues—and on this matter the verdict of one individual and of one generation will differ from that of another as long as the world endures.

"A character like that of Cobden," writes Mr. Morley, "calls for no elaborate attempt at analysis. In motive and purpose he was the most candid and direct of mankind." This

statement, if properly understood, is strictly true. It is further as clear as day that when Cobden chose to speak out he did not fear the face of man. But we find it impossible to study the facts put before the world by Mr. Morley without seeing that Cobden, like other innovators, was endowed with a kind of practical wisdom which was hardly akin to directness and simplicity of action. Like all propagators of a faith, he was eager to gain disciples and to spread his creed. He practised occasionally the possibly legitimate arts by which preachers have in all ages tried to aid the cause of truth. Can any one, for example, think that Cobden's position in relation to Kossuth was a perfectly natural or clear position? The Hungarian came to England filled with indignation at the wrong done to his country, and burning with hatred of Russia. It cannot at this time of day be doubted that Kossuth would, if he had been able, have induced England and other free countries to intervene on behalf of Hungary. There are those who still believe (we incline to think mistakenly) that English opinion would have supported armed intervention on behalf of the Hungarians. However this may have been, one of the inherent difficulties in the way of any such policy was the fanatical adherence of the Manchester school to the principle of non-intervention. We find it a little difficult to see how Cobden could, under these circumstances, take Kossuth in any sense by the hand. Yet somehow or other he did to a certain extent keep up a friendly relation with the Hungarian patriot. They both were, it is true, displeased with the conduct of Palmerston; but the man who detested the English Foreign Secretary because he occasionally and fitfully intervened in the affairs of the Continent, was hardly the natural ally of the exile whose essential quarrel with Palmerston was that he did not at once use the sword of England on behalf of Hungarian freedom. Cobden's attitude is partly explained by the extraordinary delusion—it can be called by no other name—that if England acted on the principle of non-intervention, and got America to adopt the same course, "the word 'stop' addressed to Russia would have the force of a thousand cannons." Still, we confess to wishing that the apostle of free trade had left Kossuth and the question of Hungary entirely alone.

Cobden was probably at this, as certainly as other crises of his career, hampered by the falsehood of his own position. He was the recognized head of the English democracy. He was termed by opponents a democrat, a leveller, a communist; the *Times* accused him of advocating an agrarian law. In matter of fact he was not a democrat, for he attached very little importance to popular government except as a means of checking the errors of an aristocracy; he was not even a Liberal, if by that name be meant a man to whom the maintenance of liberty was of itself, as to Mill, the main end of government. He might, indeed, be called a Radical, as from one point of view his economical reforms went to the root, in his opinion at any rate, of the evils with which English society was cursed. But he was, before everything else, an economist. Forms of government, national independence, political liberty, were in his view important mainly because of the security which they provided, or might provide, for good government—that is, government in conformity with the laws of political economy. "I very much suspect," he writes, "that at present for the great mass of the people Prussia possesses the best government in Europe. I would gladly give up my taste for talking politics to secure such a state of things in England." He is convinced that the English constitution is a "great juggle." It is "a thing of monopolies and churchcraft and sinecures,

armorial hocus-pocus, primogeniture and panoply. The government of Prussia is the mildest phase in which absolutism ever presented itself." This was written in 1828. There is no reason to think that Cobden's opinion ever substantially changed. With perfect consistency he showed little enthusiasm for the plans of political reform which occupied the mind of John Bright. He distrusted rightly enough the bad political economy of the workingman. He does not show any sign of sympathizing with movements in favor of national independence. In all this there is, we frankly admit, something to admire even by those who do not agree with the dogmas of the peace party. It is impossible not to acknowledge that Cobden had intellectually a firmer grasp of the doctrines in which he believed than have most men whose life is spent in political agitation. But it is also impossible not to perceive that his position was to a certain extent false. He did not share the principles or the prejudices of ordinary democrats. At the time of the Crimean War the fact became apparent that Palmerston, aristocrat as he was, more nearly represented the English democracy than did the champion of free trade. A false position may lead even the most candid of men, not into dishonesty, of which Cobden was utterly incapable, but into calculated reticence, or at least into the awkward keeping back of points which might excite division between himself and his followers.

Cobden's enthusiasm for his cause, and his leniency toward the faults of beneficent absolutism, are closely connected with the most dubious moral feature of his policy. He exhibits a certain moral indifference in the choice of means for promoting economic reforms. His negotiations with Louis Napoleon were in themselves inconsistent with zeal for liberty. But it is difficult to believe that any man who had shared the burning indignation of Liberals in every country at the *Coup d'état*, and the despotism which it founded, could have voluntarily undertaken the task of opening the eyes of Louis Napoleon to economic truth. To Cobden the French Emperor was an interesting convert, who was able beyond any man living to promote the progress of the good cause. Cobden may have been right in holding that the service to mankind of promoting free trade and good will between France and England was sufficient to justify his friendly relations with the French despot. Still, there will always be found persons to regret that the high principle of Mr. Cobden and the worldly sagacity of Lord Palmerston should, curiously enough, have led two statesmen who agreed in nothing else, to agree in looking with toleration on the blood-stained author of the crime of the 2d of December.

HOWORTH'S HISTORY OF THE MONGOLS.

History of the Mongols, from the Ninth to the Nineteenth Century. By Henry H. Howorth, F.S.A. London: Longmans, Green & Co. 3 vols. 8vo.

IT has often been remarked that the age of nautical discovery has passed; that in the state of modern geography the career of a Columbus or a Drake is no longer possible, and the only outlet for adventurous spirits is in the dangers and hardships of polar voyages. But the passion and the field for intellectual exploration are apparently illimitable, and each new achievement only furnishes a fresh stimulus to ambition. The most obvious illustrations of this are in the domain of physical science; but it is also true of a branch of knowledge which is nearly akin to geographical discovery—the history of races and languages. It is said that fifty years ago there was hardly a scholar in Europe who

could read the Sanskrit books of the early Aryans; now many of them have been translated and published in English, and the study has had very notable philological results. A monument of industry and patience which might excite the envy even of German students is furnished in the work before us. Three large volumes, handsomely printed (though in small type), and with wide margins, comprising in all some 1,800 pages, are devoted to a history, mainly genealogical, of the tribes of central Asia, wrought out with a zeal and minuteness almost equal to that of a member of a New England antiquarian society, tracing up an ancestry whose whole title to interest lies in the fact of their existence.

The first half of the first volume comprises the erection of the Mongol Empire under Genghis (or, as we are now told to call him, Jingis) Khan in the twelfth century. Our author tries hard to endow his hero with some romantic personal qualities, but his narration of facts bars any other conclusion than that, apart from intellectual qualities, this hero was an unmitigated savage. Great qualities of some kind he must have had, since, as Mr. Howorth says, "he may fairly claim to have conquered the greatest area of the world's surface that was ever subdued by one hand"; while it is no less a testimony to his power of administrative organization that we find one of his successors, a hundred years after, ruling over "the largest empire that was ever controlled by one man." The origin of this great structure was in an obscure tribe living between the sources of the rivers Amoor and Yenisei, in about fifty degrees of north latitude. They were pure nomads, living by hunting and cattle-breeding, without any fixed pastures, and wandering every year in search of water and grass. Their food consisted of flesh and sour milk. Here, about the year 1160, was born Temudjin, (signifying "iron" or "steel," his sobriquet of Jingis, or the "Mighty" Khan being assumed only after he was forty years old), of a royal stock, which Mr. Howorth discusses with elaborate detail. His early career was that of thousands of adventurers in Asia—the assertion of his rights by the strong hand; and having subdued the neighboring tribes, he expanded his operations, till during the last twenty-five years of his life, covering the first quarter of the thirteenth century, his armies had overrun China as far as the Yellow River; had reduced the peninsula of Corea to at least tributary subjection; had subdued all central and southern Asia as far as the Indus and the Persian Gulf, and had swept over northern Asia and Europe as far as the river Dnieper in Russia.

These armies were composed of soldiers who could live anywhere where their horses and cattle could find pasture. On distant expeditions they took no gear except two leathern bottles for milk, a little earthen pot to cook their meat in, and a little tent to shelter them from the rain; and, in cases of great urgency, they would ride ten days on end without lighting a fire or taking a meal. "On such occasions," according to Marco Polo, confirmed by the Persian historians, "they would sustain themselves on the blood of their horses, opening a vein and letting the blood jet into their mouths, drinking till they had enough, and then stanching it." With these hardy habits, and controlled by the severe discipline of Jingis, these hordes were irresistible. Their conquering march through the rich countries of southern Asia must have been as romantic as those of the Crusaders from Europe, and of the Spaniards in Mexico. But it was more destructive than either. "The creed of Jingis was to sweep away all cities as the haunts of slaves and luxury, that his herds might freely feed upon grass whose green was free from dusty

feet." It is frightful to read that from 1211 to 1223 18,470,000 human beings perished in China and Tangut alone at the hands of this man and his followers. Mr. Howorth philosophizes that the great scourges of God—Sesostris, Sennacherib, Darius, Alexander, Caesar, Attila, Timur, Bonaparte—recur at intervals to purge the world of the diseased and the decaying, the weak and the false, the fool and the knave. But if Divine Providence undertook to renovate the world, it seems, in this case at least, to have made but a very poor job of it. The countries thus ravaged were rich and prosperous. Balkh, Samarcand, Khiva, and Bokhara were great cities, with large wealth, extensive commerce, and beautiful gardens. What the Mongols did for these their successors the Turks did for such cities as Bagdad, Aleppo, and Damascus. And what has come out of it? If the state of things destroyed was worse than what exists in these countries in the nineteenth century, it must have been very bad indeed.

After the death of Jingis in August, 1227, the work was continued by his numerous sons and relatives. His nephew, Batu, carried his arms over nearly all Russia, all of Hungary as far as Pesth and south to the Adriatic, very much on the same principles which had been so effective in Asia. Fortunately for mankind, the Mongols made no permanent settlement in Europe, but as internal quarrels broke out in the empire they retired again into Asia. The conquest of China was also completed about the same time. The empire of Kubilai Khan, who died in 1297, included, under more or less direct rule, China, Corea, Tibet, Tung-King, Cochin-China, a great portion of India beyond the Ganges, the Turkish and Siberian realms from the Eastern Sea to the Dnieper, while the Ilkhans of Persia (whose empire bordered on the Mediterranean and the Greek empire) were his feudatories. After this time the Mongol rule began to decline. Luxury and effeminacy did their work as usual, and by the end of the fourteenth century the invaders had been driven out of China by the founders of the Ming dynasty, while their other dominions in Asia had been divided among various claimants.

The last half of the first volume is devoted to an analysis of the numerous tribes which made up the Mongol empire—a mass of intricate detail which we imagine few readers will have the patience to master. That Mr. Howorth has had the patience to write it shows how absorbing becomes the pursuit of such special investigations, and the terms of warm friendship and admiration in which he speaks of his laborers in the same field show also what a close bond unites those who give themselves up to studies so far from the general line of inquiry.

The second and third volumes are devoted to the rulers and tribes in the countries surrounding the Caspian and those northward to the borders of Russia and the Arctic Ocean. It is curious to note how the traditions of government are modified by circumstances. In Mohammedan, and indeed in most Asiatic countries, the succession to a crown does not fall to the oldest son, but to the oldest male member of the family—brother or uncle as it may be. The political reason seems to be that a long minority with a regency is almost impracticable in the midst of lawlessness and turbulence: it is necessary that a grown and strong man should take the reins at once. But then, where difference of age (it may be slight) is the only determining element, there is a constant tendency to secure or establish a claim by the murder of all other possible competitors. The obvious inconveniences of this course lead, with the progress of civilization, to the establishment in European countries of a definite law of succession in favor of the

eldest son or child, and the rest of the family uphold this as the means of securing the best which they can obtain by peaceful methods.

The most interesting feature of these last volumes is the gradual development of the relations of the Asiatic tribes to Russia. It has been remarked that after the death of Jingis, his nephew Batu, in the middle of the thirteenth century, overran most of Russia, and penetrated to the Danube. We may be pardoned for the repetition, as Mr. Howorth, with each tribe, goes back for centuries and makes repeated reference to events already narrated, in a way which is sadly detrimental to the clearness of the story. The Mongol success was owing in a great measure to the principle which is so much in vogue in modern Europe, universal service. Every man was a horseman, and therefore a soldier, and all were subjected to an iron discipline. In Russia, on the other hand, the priests and merchants and slaves had so multiplied that the military class were in a small minority. The feeble militia which was assembled could not stand before the Tartar cavalry. Mr. Howorth observes again, after a description of the Tartar weapons, that they were far superior to anything then known in Europe. The history of warfare is full of examples of a transfer of dominion effected almost entirely by new inventions and improvements of the appliances of war, so that modern Europe, with its spirit of subjective analysis, spends its years of peace in scientific research applied to the implements of attack and defence. The forests and morasses of central Russia had no attractions for pastoral nomads, and so, after devastating the country in a frightful manner, the Mongols retired to the regions to the south and east. They left behind them, however, commissaries and tax-gatherers, who drained the vitals of the land. Two centuries of misery and degradation reduced the country to the lowest ebb, and then a revival began to take place, under the Czars Ivan III. and IV., the latter surnamed the Terrible. It is a striking fact of history that nearly at the same time all over Europe a remedy for the anarchy and chaos of feudalism was sought for in a centralized despotism. Henry VII. and VIII. of England, Richelieu in France, Ferdinand and Isabella in Spain, the Ivans in Russia, were all comprised in a period of little more than a century. It was the want of a corresponding power which has kept Germany and Italy in a state of disintegration down to our time; and the former may be said, *mutatis mutandis*, to be going through what other parts of Europe experienced three centuries ago. The work which the two Ivans, in the depressed state of the nation, did among the boyars of Russia had much more fatal effects upon municipal and social freedom than corresponding events elsewhere. To quote Mr. Howorth: "Serfdom was introduced, the peasant was tied down to the land, and the whole nation, by an ingenious hierarchy of officials, was made a mere machine, of which the key was in the hands of one irresponsible person, and during one long reign in the hands of a madman and a monster." None the less, the concentration of national strength worked out results here as elsewhere, and as the Tartar powers fell to decay the Western giant was growing in strength, till in the nineteenth century we find the situation completely reversed, and Russia invading the Tartars, as in the thirteenth they invaded her, but with a comparative mildness and beneficence which marks the change that has come over the world.

The third volume has a very interesting account of the first expedition which led to the conquest of Siberia. It was organized in 1579, by the Stroganoffs, a family of nobles on the frontier, and led by Yermak Timoveef, hetman

of a body of Don Cossacks who had fled from Russian punishment of their robberies. Five years of the severest hardships ended in defeat, but paved the way for future enterprises. We have an account also of the modern city of Bokhara, associated for Anglo-Indian readers with the names of Stoddart, Conolly, and Wolff; and also of Khiva, captured by the Russian General Kaufmann in 1870, when General Skobeleff, since so famous, first came into notice.

It is hardly to be expected that a writer absorbed in Asiatic genealogies should be very sensitive to purity of English style, and Mr. Howorth's shows traces of the fatigue which the greatest enthusiast must experience in such a labyrinth. To a reader struggling in a sea of barbarous nomenclature it is an additional burden to find himself engaged in constant chase of an antecedent for the pronoun "he." Mr. Howorth modestly disclaims a position among the brilliant writers who have made history so fascinating to the general reader, being content with that of a collector of materials; but, granting that a recasting of these materials in a more narrative form might make them easier reading, he is certainly entitled to the credit of what principally gives history any real value, indefatigable research.

MARTIN'S 'HOW TO DISSECT A CHELONIAN.'

Handbook of Vertebrate Dissection. Part 1. How to Dissect a Chelonian. By H. Newell Martin and W. A. Moale. New York: Macmillan & Co. 12mo, pp. 94, 1 plate. 1881.

DR. MARTIN was already known to American naturalists as the collaborator of Prof. Huxley in the preparation of the 'Elementary Biology,' which, although slightly antedated by Morrell and Rolleston, may justly be regarded as the real prototype of what we hope may become a long series of practical dissections of representative and peculiar organic forms. Theoretically, neither the frog, which is treated in the 'Biology,' nor the turtle, which is the subject of the present volume, is best suited for the exemplification of the vertebrate structure in general, or of the amphibian or reptilian modifications. Chelonians are a very peculiar and aberrant group, while frogs and toads are in some respects as decided morphological monstrosities as are the tailless apes and man himself. Practically, however, there is much to be said in favor of the generally distributed and easily obtained, preserved and dissected frog as an introduction to vertebrate anatomy, and our author explains the publication of the 'Chelonian Dissection' prior to those of the lizard, bony and cartilaginous fishes, tailed amphibian, rat, and pigeon, which he intends to prepare, upon the ground that the difficulties presented by the turtle led him first to put the directions into shape for his students. In passing, let us express the hope that the series may be made to embrace the amphioxus and lamprey eel, and that Dr. Martin may be led to substitute for the pigeon and the rat the more readily obtainable common fowl, and the rabbit or the cat. An additional reason for the early publication of the present part is the fact that "the great persistence of vitality in its various organs after general death of the animal makes it extremely promising for physiological experiment." So true is this observation that, although the volume professes to deal with merely structural considerations, we wish that, in addition to noting the action of the heart, which often beats long after death, the student were advised to pinch the muscles and nerves, or stimulate them with electricity, so as to obtain an elementary yet very distinct conception

of some of the fundamental properties of those tissues. The action of the cilia also might be observed if some method of killing the turtle other than by chloroform were recommended.

The foregoing reference to the manner of killing the animal suggests the first criticism upon the practical portion of the work. On page 6 the student is told to "insert a tenaculum into the soft parts beneath the head, and draw out the latter; force open the mouth and direct a pipette, containing about a teaspoonful of chloroform, into the opening of the glottis, which will be found in an elevation at the base of the tongue; then blow the chloroform in to the lungs." This may be appropriate to the small and pacific "Red-bellied Slider Terrapin," but would our authors advise the same liberties to be taken (or rather undertaken) with a "Snapper," with the soft-shelled turtle which is so common at the West, or with the giant "Loggerhead" or "Gallapagos"?

Upon the following point criticism applies with equal force to nearly all published directions for anatomical manipulation: there is no list of the various instruments and materials required. Indeed, excepting the guarded bristle and the sharp knife for dividing the brain, the *armamentarium anatomicum* is assumed to be complete and appropriate; yet it is notorious that the average dissecting-case of the medical schools affords an altogether inadequate outfit for the nicer kinds of zoötanical work. Coming to details, nothing is said of injecting the vessels, which is certainly desirable upon at least one of the several specimens which each student should examine; there is no hint as to ligating the intestines before dividing them; "strong" and "dilute" alcohol are mentioned without definite intimation as to the per cent.; and *macerate* is employed in at least an ambiguous sense. The volume is advertised as "with illustrations," which consist, however, of four scarcely large enough figures of as many aspects of the skull. Since our authors determined to depart from the much to be regretted and wholly unaccounted-for plan of the 'Elementary Biology,' and the 'Practical Physiology' of Foster and Langley, most users of the present work will certainly wish that the illustrations had been multiplied; that the figures of the skull had been eccolated with the description thereof, instead of forming a very unattractive frontispiece; that the numbers designating the bones had been replaced by the names themselves, or by intelligible abbreviations; and that references to the figures had been given in the text.

Most of the more important organs are mentioned, and our authors were probably wise in not describing or even enumerating each individual muscle, vessel, and nerve. Yet (especially in view of the detailed and apparently accurate account of the caudal portion of the sympathetic system) one is surprised at the absence of allusion to the interesting pair of lymphatic hearts at the root of the tail. The brain is allowed a fair share of space, but how can a student gain any clear or accurate conception of its general plan of arrangement without an intimation of the existence of a *lamina terminalis*? Since merely an acquaintance with human osteology is assumed as a prerequisite to such work as is here described, it might be expected either that each of the softer parts would be designated by a single name in all places, or that the synonymy would be indicated, at least in the Index. Yet *glottis* (p. 6) is not included in the Index, and in other parts of the work it is replaced by the ponderous and unfamiliar term *aditus laryngis*, with no intimation that the two refer to the same thing. In a greater or less degree, the same remark applies to the words *gullet* and *oesophagus*, *trachea* and *wind-pipe*,

chiasma and *optic commissure*, *thalami* and *thalamencephalon*, *optic lobes*, *midbrain*, and *mesencephalon*, *cardia* and *cardiac end of the stomach*. The Index, in fact, is simply verbal, and one must know all the names by which an organ might be called in order to ascertain where it is treated.

It is gratifying to observe the general, though not uniform, use of such exact topographical terms as *dorsal* and *ventral* in place of the utterly vague *upper* and *lower*, *front* and *back*. Our authors, however, still employ the almost equally objectionable words *anterior* and *posterior* rather than the explicit *cephalic* and *caudal*, which have been suggested in the last edition of Quain's 'Anatomy,' and adopted by some writers. Notwithstanding an evident intention of accuracy, there are some pretty vague descriptions, as, e. g., 206 f, and the statement in 200 that the "lateral ventricles" are "under their respective prosencephalic lobes." As in the other practical works which have been mentioned, excepting that of Rolleston, no references are given to compendiums of Comparative Anatomy, or to the papers of original observers of chelonian structure. It may be a fair question as to the desirability of very copious references; yet we think it only just both to the investigators and to the students that the latter should be informed by whom knowledge has been advanced in any particular direction. In the present case it would certainly not have taken much space to name the works and papers of the elder Agassiz, Bojanus, Brücke, Parker, and H. S. Williams. Despite the deficiencies which have been pointed out, the present volume will prove very helpful and satisfactory to any who will employ it (as it is intended to be used) specimen and scalpel in hand.

FREEMAN'S SUBJECT AND NEIGHBOR LANDS OF VENICE.

Sketches from the Subject and Neighbour Lands of Venice. By Edward A. Freeman, D.C.L., LL.D., Honorary Fellow of Trinity College, Oxford. With illustrations. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881. Small 8vo, pp. 335.

UNDER the above title Mr. Freeman has arranged a series of short historical papers, some of which are entirely new, and many of which have been recast from articles which appeared five or six years ago in the *Pall Mall Gazette* and the *Saturday Review*. The present collection is a volume similar in form, content, and illustration to the 'Historical and Architectural Studies,' published in 1870. Mr. Freeman regards the above 'Sketches' as a companion and sequel to the 'Studies.' The latter related chiefly to Italian cities; the former relate more especially to the cities on the northern and eastern shores of the Adriatic. With Venice as a kind of polar star, Mr. Freeman has voyaged up and down the Dalmatian coast and along the western shores of Greece, visiting many points of historic interest; and his present work is a kind of historical *Odyssey*, in twenty-six books, the personal observations of an old historian of many devices, who, returning homeward by devious ways from historical warfare with the Turks, has lately found a modern Ithaca and a new England in the westward-drifting island of Atlantis.

The chief interest of Mr. Freeman's book attaches itself to the historic continuity of ancient municipal life in those lands which fringe the eastern shores of the Adriatic. Cities, like nations, possess a kind of organic life, and reproduce their kind. They even renew their strength, and sometimes, apparently, their youth. As

Greek and Roman nationalities have endured to this day, reinvigorated with infusions of Slavic and Teutonic blood, so many Greek and Roman cities, grafted with fresh institutions, have preserved their old municipal stock; their historic soil and environment; their monuments and traditions; and, in some cases, their very names. Through all the storms of barbaric invasion, and amid the very wrecks of Roman, Gothic, Byzantine, Norman, Venetian, and Turkish dominion, certain of these ancient municipalities, like Zara and Durazzo, have stood forth like historical lighthouses, illuminating to some extent the darkness which settled down upon the borders of southeastern Europe. Some ancient cities, like Aquileia and Salona, have handed on their light to other cities standing by, like Venice and Spalato, as did runners in the old Grecian torch-race, or as Grecian colonies used to bear with them fire taken from the altar of their native city to kindle municipal life upon distant shores. Many ancient municipal beacons have gone out entirely, but some are now shining on with renewed brightness—for example, the haven of Pola, which shelters to-day the growing navy of Austria as it once sheltered the ships of Old and New Rome.

Among the most interesting of Mr. Freeman's municipal sketches are those of Ragusa and Spalato. Ragusa, "the city of argosies," is the daughter of Epidauros, a Grecian colony originally planted upon a peninsula hill, with a double harbor, like Epidamnos (the Roman Dyrrachium, modern Durazzo), which was the daughter of the elder Korkyra, and the granddaughter of Corinth. The site of the ancient Epidauros is marked by a village known as Ragusa Vecchia, the old municipal home having curiously appropriated the name and fame of the city which went forth from out of it. It is as though England should one day assume the name of Old America. Old Ragusa, like Salona, mother-city of Spalato, fell a prey to Slavonic invaders, and its inhabitants founded a city of refuge upon "a peninsula of hills and rocks and inlets, offering a bold front to the full force of the open sea." There seems to be a principle of heredity in the very choice men make of ground whereon to build a city. The Greeks planted their first towns upon hills remote from the sea. Gradually these "hill-forts" crept out upon promontories, and their long walls reached down to harbors on either hand. The choice of a peninsula hill, or of land with easy access to the sea, finally became as much an instinct with Greek colonists as the building of nests upon rocky cliffs is with certain sea-birds. But the original idea of an acropolis was rarely, if ever, abandoned. Ragusa itself was simply a hill-fort brought down to the seaside. Mr. Freeman's description of this transplanted Greek colony, now Slavic in speech and culture, but still Hellenic in its traditions of local freedom, is one of the most felicitous of all his sketches:

"Ragusa lies at the foot of the mountains, and the crest of the mountains was her boundary. She has always sat on a little ledge of Christendom, with a measureless background of barbarism behind her. Those hills, the slopes of which begin in the streets of the city, once fenced in a ledge of Hellenic land from the native barbarians of Illyricum; then they fenced in a ledge of Roman land from the Slavonic invader; lastly, when we first looked on them, when we first crossed them, they still fenced in a ledge of Christian land from the dominion of the Infidel."

And herein lies the chief glory of Ragusa as contrasted with other important cities on the Dalmatian coast.

"We draw near to Zara, and say, 'There is the city that was stormed by the Crusaders.' We draw near to Spalato; we see the palace and the campanile, and round the palace and

campanile everything gathers. We draw near to Ragusa; the eye is struck by no such prominent object, the memory seizes on no such prominent fact. But there is Ragusa; there is the one spot along that whole coast from the Croatian border to Cape Tainaros itself which never came under the dominion of the Venetian or of the Turk."

If Ragusa is interesting as an historical survival of the old Greek municipal spirit, though downtrodden by Napoleon and the "emperors" of Austria, Spalato is still more interesting as a survival of municipal Rome, which, from a hill-fort on the Palatine, went forth with widening power until it became the *civitas mundi, urbs et orbis*. Spalato, like Rome, a city of refuge, likewise developed from the abode of its founder, although the palace of Diocletian, the first building at Spalato, was a developed type of the abode of the Cæsars, then crowning the Palatine hill and representing Rome as did the hill-fort of its early kings. Diocletian was the first of Roman emperors to establish a new capital. He was the archetype of Constantine, who built a New Rome upon the Bosphorus. He was the forerunner of Theodosius, who finally divided the Empire into its eastern and western branches; for Diocletian gave the world the idea of two Augusti and two Cæsares, ruling in eastern and western capitals, at Nikomedea, Milan, Trier, and York. All three rulers sprang from the region of Illyria, and to this region Diocletian, the ruling spirit, finally returned, and built himself a stately palace near Salona and his old home, where, having retired from imperial office, he showed the world that a Roman emperor could conquer himself, as he had conquered the old imperial city, by asserting the principle, *ubi Cæsar, ibi Roma*.

Mr. Freeman regards Spalato as the most marked and memorable spot in the whole course of his Dalmatian journeys. He says it is a place thoroughly unhearkened and as yet uninvaded by British tourists. He first visited Spalato in 1875, and his first impressions were those of unbounded enthusiasm. The visit was "the accomplishment of a thirty years' yearning after the architectural wonders of Spalato." It was chiefly this monumental city, described many years ago for art-history (see Kugler, 'Kunstgeschichte,' i., 226) by an Englishman named Adam, in an illustrated work on the 'Ruins of the Palace of the Emperor Diocletian,' that first attracted Mr. Freeman to the Dalmatian coast—that old border-land of rival empires and rival churches. And to this city of Spalato Mr. Freeman has returned again and again. In a sketch entitled "Spalato Revisited" he tempers somewhat his first enthusiasm about "the house which became a city," admitting that the name Spalato is not derived from the Latin *Palatum*; but he holds firmly to his main position that Diocletian's palace represents the greatest advance ever made in the art of building, for it was "the beginning of all consistent arched architecture—Romanesque, Gothic, or any other." This wonderful advance consisted in the simple expedient of rearing the Roman round arch directly from the capital of the Grecian column, without the employment of entablature, which had long prevented the perfect organic unity of two classic and representative types. Until the erection of the Baths of Diocletian at Rome, and of his palace at Spalato, Grecian columns had served no real purpose in Roman architecture except that of mural ornamentation. They had been beautiful masks for ugly walls. Now, however, we find them restored to actual use in upholding the mural superstructure. And thus began that wonderful development-process of modern architecture—Basilican churches like St. John Lateran and St. Paul's without the walls; Romanesque ca-

theatres like that at Pisa and those along the Rhine; so-called Gothic architecture, which is but the pointed Saracenic arch made to spring directly from the head of the column, as does the Roman arch in Diocletian's palace. "All Romanesque and Gothic architecture was, like another Athene, in embryo in the brain of Jovius or his architect," says Freeman in an earlier paper on "Diocletian's Place in Architectural History" ("Historical Essays," Third Series), which should be reread in connection with these new sketches of "Spalato" and "Spalato Revisited."

One of the most striking characteristics of Mr. Freeman's method of treating historical subjects is the habit of suggesting comparisons. He is ever on the alert to note points of resemblance and points of difference. The palace of Diocletian, "the main object and centre of all historical and architectural inquiries on the Dalmatian coast," suggests to his mind a Roman military camp, a *chester*, because of the vast original circuit of the palace and its outlying quarters for soldiery, its four gates and four streets. The great inner court of the palace, with its arcades yet standing, appears to him the *piazza* or public square of Spalato. The Venetian *loggia* of this town, the lower story of the Ducal Palace of Venice, and the pillared space below the civic palace of Udine, all remind him of English town-halls and market-houses, which are often built upon open arcades, beneath which is a sheltered place for traffic, while town affairs and local courts are carried on in the rooms above. "Enlarge and enrich a building of this kind, and we come by easy steps to the palace of Udine and to the palace of Venice." At Ragusa Mr. Freeman discovers a town-hall which is a fair counterpart to that at Venice, although he regards the Ragusan arcade as much finer than the Venetian. An ancient knocker upon a side-door of the court of the cathedral at Ragusa is "a worthy fellow of the great one at Durham." At Treviso, which was the first acquisition of Venice upon the mainland of Italy, the numerous streams, canals, and bridges call up the memory of its mistress. Everywhere in his travels he is quick to observe traces of Venetian likeness or of Venetian influence. Curzola, "true child of Venice, knows neither horse nor carriage." Cattaro attracts him by its graceful little scraps of Venetian architecture. In fact, all Venetian

towns beyond the Adriatic seem to him in some sort to reproduce their mistress.

Very early in this volume Mr. Freeman calls attention to the fact that the Lombards had their *Eastrice*, corresponding to the *Austrasian* of the Frankish kingdom and to the *Ostmark* (afterward *Oesterreich*) of the Frankish empire. But throughout the whole book extends the implied parallel between the East and the West, between Austria and Turkey, between the powers of Europe and of Asia. In reading the story of those little municipalities which dot the borderland between the old Eastern and Western empires, we are continually reminded of the survival of historic relations and of the existence of an unsolved problem—the "Eastern Question"—which is truly "eternal." Mr. Freeman's suggestive words as to a possible revival of the Eastern Question at no distant day assume a fresh interest in the light of the recent rebellion in the Balkan peninsula against the attempt of Austria to introduce her militia system in the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which, by the Berlin treaty, she was authorized only to "administer." These provinces and the border districts of Dalmatia are now in revolt. Mr. Freeman has been among the mountaineers of the latter region, and has learned something of the Swiss spirit of independence which reigns among the men of the Bocche di Cattaro. In 1869 Austria endeavored to crush this determined people and their ancient rights, as she once tried to crush the Swiss Confederates at Morgarten and Sempach, and with much the same results. An army of Austrian troops was hurled back from the Bocchese Highlands. In village-inns in that region Mr. Freeman saw rude pictures commemorating the triumph. He says: "People still chatter about the mythical exploits of Tell, but hardly any one has heard of this little piece of successful resistance to oppression done only twelve years back." It remains to be seen what success will attend Austria's present invasion of mountain fastnesses. Mr. Arthur Evans, the son-in-law of Mr. Freeman, visited the Bocchese insurgents a few weeks ago when the rebellion was brewing, and in a letter to the *Manchester Guardian*, December 4, prophesied a general uprising of the mountaineers in the Bosnian and Herzegovinian Alps, and a desperate resistance to service in the Austrian *Landwehr*.

Christopher Columbus (1440-1506). The first American citizen (by adoption). [Lives of American Worthies.] By W. L. Alden. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1881. Pp. 287.

If it is worth while to write a comic biography of Columbus, Mr. Alden's is certainly very well done. It is sprightly and entertaining, and affords agreeable amusement for an odd five minutes. Moreover, it must be confessed that there are incidents in the life of Columbus which diminish the regret that one feels at seeing a man of the really highest type made the butt of ridicule. Nothing can justify, for example, giving over the character and career of Washington to be made sport of by the author of "Helen's Babies." We are told in the announcement of the series that "the truth of history is adhered to with most uncompromising rigidity." Precisely what this means we do not know. Of course the main facts in the life of Columbus are faithfully stated; on the other hand, there are numerous incidents which are fictitious upon the face of them, being introduced merely in order to give a touch of the ludicrous to the narrative; and there is certainly no absolute dividing line between these to distinguish the truthful from the comical. The following passage about Presbyter John (p. 31) will give a good notion of Mr. Alden's best style:

"The wonderful credulity of the age is shown by his belief in a Presbyterian King whom no European had ever seen, and in a kingdom of which no man knew the situation. It ought to have occurred to the Portuguese King that, even if he could find this mythical monarch, he would not take any real pleasure in his society, unless it were to burn him. King John II. was a pious Roman Catholic, and, next to a Methodist, a Presbyterian King would have been about the most uncongenial acquaintance he could have made."

Much of the fun is genuine and good, a part is rather forced; but on the whole we prefer biography and drollery separate.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Acland and Ransome. *Handbook of the Political History of England*. London: Rivingtons; New York News Co.
Acton, R. *England's Colonial Empire*. London and New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.
Baker, B. *The Actual Lateral Pressure of Earthwork*. New York: D. Van Nostrand. 50 cents.
Beebe's Four-Place Tables. New Haven: H. H. Peck.
Books of All Time: A Guide for the Purchase of Books. New York: F. Leyboldt.
Bowen, H. C. *The Shakspere Reading-Book*. London and New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co. \$1.25.
Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon. 13th ed. Parts 2-7: Adam-Almoraviden. New York: L. W. Schmidt.

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